

The Nostratic Macrofamily and Linguistic Palaeontology

Aharon Dolgopolsky

with an introduction by
Colin Renfrew



THE McDONALD INSTITUTE FOR ARCHAEOLOGICAL RESEARCH

Papers in the Prehistory of Languages

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Author:

Aharon Dolgopolsky
Hebrew Language Department
Haifa University
Mount Carmel
Haifa 31905
Israel

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Introduction

by Colin Renfrew

Introduction: the Nostratic Hypothesis, Linguistic Macrofamilies and Prehistoric Studies

Colin Renfrew

Director of the McDonald Institute for Archaeological Research
University of Cambridge

Foreword

It is with great pleasure that I take the opportunity of introducing Aharon Dolgopolsky's *The Nostratic Macrofamily and Linguistic Palaeontology*, published by the McDonald Institute for Archaeological Research as a part of its current Research Project on 'The Prehistory of Languages'. The project is supported with a generous grant from the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation. The Foundation has as its aim the support of research at the uncertain frontiers of knowledge, where the limits to our understanding are not yet clearly defined, and such appears the position in this field, where historical linguistics, prehistoric archaeology and molecular biology overlap in an area of uncertain methodologies.

Such, at any rate to the outside observer, well characterizes the current position in historical linguistics with regard to what may be called 'macrofamilies', that is to say wide linguistic groupings which bring together a number of established linguistic families. The validity of such an enterprise has been questioned by a number of linguists, and the status of the position with regard to macrofamilies (or 'superfamilies') is far from clear to an outsider. At the same time the significance to the understanding of human history and prehistory, if the validity of such macrofamilies were to be accepted, is enormous. The implications for the early history of human populations, and of population movements, would be very considerable. For this reason the topic is attracting increasing attention among archaeologists and among molecular geneticists concerned precisely with the reconstruction of early population histories, to which their own discipline is now increasingly in a position to make notable contributions.

The Nostratic macrofamily has been documented for some time by a substantial body of work, but much of this is published in Russian and is little known in the west. For that reason this short monograph by Aharon Dolgopolsky may be seen as of particular importance. Its subject matter is of the greatest interest to the prehistoric archaeologist of Europe and Western Asia and lands beyond, just

as it must be to the historical linguist concerned with the languages of these areas. But this work goes further: it presents for the first time a full and rich illustration, with a large vocabulary, of the central tenet of the Nostratic hypothesis, namely that the constituent families of the Nostratic macrofamily are indeed related, and that this relationship can be documented using the traditional and well tried 'comparative method' of historical linguistics. This was first developed in its full complexity and rigour in the field of Indo-European studies (Brugmann 1897–1916) and has subsequently been applied to a wide range of language families. The present short monograph should therefore offer to historical linguists the opportunity of evaluating the linguistic reconstructions presented here, and thus the hypothetical relationships which it is claimed that they demonstrate.

The discipline of historical linguistics has had some difficulty, or so it would seem, in evaluating the claims of those who have proposed the existence of various macrofamilies. It is therefore the intention of the 'Prehistory of Languages' Project of the McDonald Institute to seek to generate informed discussion of the present short monograph by circulating it widely, and by inviting qualified linguists and others to submit comments which, it is hoped, will form the basis for a symposium or conference, to be held probably in 1998, to evaluate the current standing of the Nostratic hypothesis.

It is furthermore the hope and intention of the McDonald Institute to publish, within the framework of the Project, Dolgopolsky's comprehensive *Nostratic Dictionary*, currently in preparation. For it is clear, in view of the methodological difficulties, that historical linguists will best be able to evaluate the status and standing of the proposed Nostratic macrofamily when they are in possession of a very substantial body of data. If the Nostratic hypothesis is accepted, the *Nostratic Dictionary*, building on Dolgopolsky's earlier work and that of Illich-Svitych, will clearly be a fundamental and pioneering contribution to our understanding of the prehistory of Europe and Western Asia and of the principal languages of these regions. But first, until that acceptance be achieved, it will serve as the basic exposition and exemplification of the Nostratic hypothesis itself, and therefore, quite properly, become the object of critical examination by historical linguists.

It is hoped that the present volume will permit the first stage in that process of critical evaluation. As indicated above, the intention is to follow it with a further volume of critical studies which will form part of the evaluative process. Dolgopolsky's important paper in many ways speaks for itself. If the initial hypothesis (of the validity of the proposed macrofamilial relationships and

equivalences) is accepted, then it throws a flood of light upon the world of the Upper Palaeolithic and perhaps the Early Neolithic of a vast segment of the earth. This would be of the greatest importance for prehistoric archaeologists and for all those concerned with the early human past. At the same time since the language families involved include, in the modern world, so high a proportion of the world's languages, the Nostratic proto-language (if the hypothesis is accepted) offers fundamental insights into the earliest discernible origins of these various languages. The prospect is therefore a very exciting one. In the few pages of this Introduction I shall try to touch upon some of these issues, drawing upon an earlier paper (Renfrew 1991), while very much aware as a non-linguist how difficult it is to evaluate or comment upon the central hypothesis, namely the validity of the Nostratic macrofamily concept. I am aware also that this is not an easy task for linguists, and it is therefore in a spirit of enquiry, and in the hope of clarifying the current status of the Nostratic hypothesis (and that of other proposed macrofamilies) that this volume is published

The Nostratic hypothesis

The Nostratic hypothesis, in its earliest form, was put forward in 1903 by the Danish linguist Holger Pedersen, who drew attention to similarities between a number of the language families of the Old World, including Semitic, Indo-European, Uralic, Altaic and Eskimo-Aleut (Pedersen 1931). He suggested that these could be regarded as belonging to a larger linguistic unity, which he proposed to call 'Nostratic', a term derived from the Latin *nostras* (genitive *nostratis*), 'our countryman'. The terminology is somewhat ethnocentric, and for that reason Dolgopol'sky's term 'Boreic' (Dolgopol'sky 1973) or Joseph Greenberg's 'Eurasian' might be preferable (Greenberg 1987, 332). But at least it is clear.

Implicit within such thinking is the Darwinian evolutionary model, first made explicit for languages in graphic form by Schleicher (1863), that the languages under comparison, if they are judged to be related, are 'sprung from some common source' (Jones 1786), that is to say from a hypothetical ancestral language or proto-language. For instance the languages which Sir William Jones recognized in 1786 as related, and which were regarded as belonging to a language 'family' later termed Indo-European, were assumed all to be the descendants of a hypothetical ancestral language, Proto-Indo-European. Population groups would have become divided or separated through the circumstances of history, and the language or dialects spoken by them would become increasingly different, through isolation and the passage of time, until the languages of these groups could be

regarded as different. The process is analogous to that of genetic drift.

The Romance languages formed the prime exemplar for many early historical linguists, being evidently descended from a proto-language which in this case was not hypothetical but known, namely late Latin. The individual Romance language (French, Spanish, Romanian etc.), were seen to stand in the same relation to Latin as did Latin, Old Slavonic, classical Greek etc. to Proto-Indo-European. All this is familiar enough and generally accepted. One of the great tasks of Indo-European comparative linguistics has been to understand the phonological regularities, the sound shifts, which led from the ancestral Latin to the various Romance languages, and in the same way from the reconstructed Proto-Indo-European to its descendant language families.

The Nostratic approach undertakes the analogous but bold task of going one step further back in time, from the language families in question, each with its ancestral proto-language, to a further and earlier hypothetical ancestor, Proto-Nostratic, which would, in a similar way be the ancestor of Proto-Indo-European, Proto-Uralic etc. The Nostratic macrofamily would thus include the various families (Indo-European, Hamito-Semitic, Uralic etc.), just as these (e.g. Indo-European) contained the specific sub-families (Romance, Slavonic, Germanic etc.) and languages (French, Polish, Dutch etc.).

The detailed development of this theory has been the work principally of two scholars (see Kaiser & Shevoroshkin 1988), namely Vladimir Illich-Svitych and Aharon Dolgopolsky. Illich-Svitych (1989; 1990; and references in the paper by Dolgopolsky) was unfortunately killed in a road accident in August 1966, and his work is only now becoming more widely known in the west (Bulatova 1989). Aharon Dolgopolsky developed the principal ideas independently and then was for some time a colleague of Illich-Svitych; he subsequently emigrated from Russia to Israel (Dolgopolsky 1973, and references in his paper).

The concept which thus emerged, as glimpsed by Pedersen, was of a much larger superfamily or macrofamily or linguistic phylum than had previously been proposed, embracing a whole series of lesser families. At its heart, at some very early time (set by many Nostratic scholars as some time before 15,000 BC), lies the notion of the Nostratic proto-language, a higher level proto-language, the common ancestor of all the proto-languages within the group.

The language families which Illich-Svitych and Dolgopolsky recognized as having a common ancestral family relationship in this way are:

- the Indo-European language family
- the Afroasiatic family
- the Dravidian family

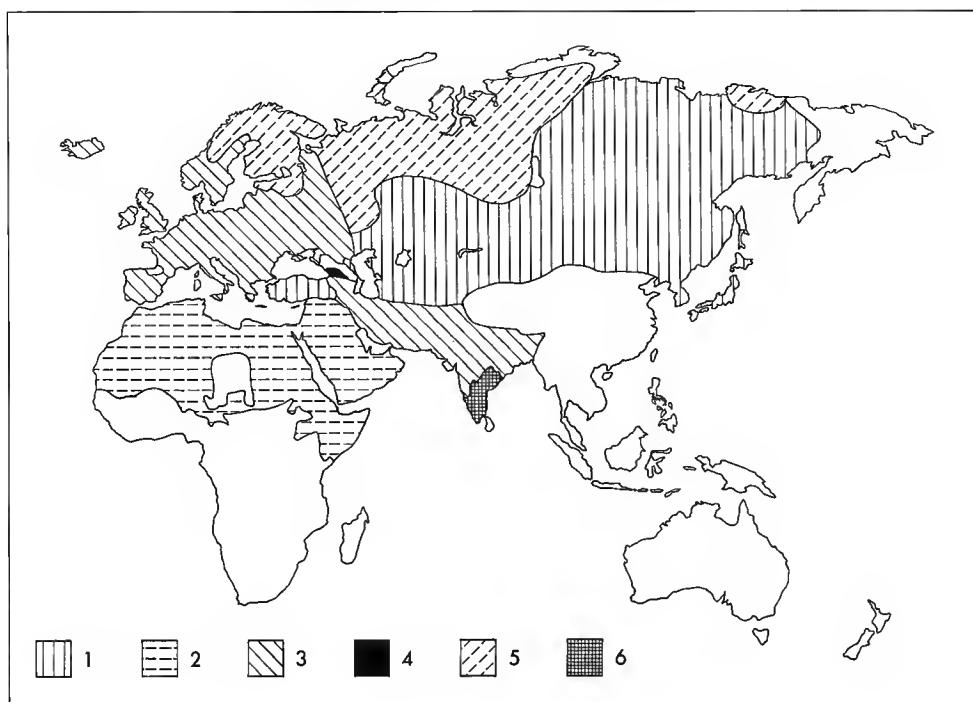


Figure 1. *The Nostratic macrofamily. The present-day distribution of the language groups within the Nostratic macrofamily. The constituent language families are: (1) Altaic; (2) Afroasiatic; (3) Indo-European; (4) South Caucasian (Kartvelian); (5) Uralic; (6) Dravidian.*

- the Altaic family
- the Kartvelian (South Caucasian) family
- the Uralic-Yukaghir family.

This offers an astonishing and breathtaking perspective — a vast linguistic panorama (Fig. 1). The present extent of the Indo-European family, that is to say the land occupied by its speakers, covers most of Europe, plus Iran, Pakistan, and much of India along with Sri Lanka (not to mention the products of later colonization in the Americas and the southern hemisphere).

The Afroasiatic language family itself is of very considerable extent (Fig. 2): it is often termed ‘Hamito-Semitic’ (see Diakonoff 1965; 1988). Since the 1920s its reality as a real family grouping, to be regarded as the descendant of a single ancestral language (i.e. Proto-Afroasiatic or Proto-Hamito-Semitic), has been generally accepted (Meillet & Cohen 1924; Cohen 1947). It coincides to a considerable extent with the grouping recognized by Joseph Greenberg (1963) and termed by him ‘Afroasiatic’.

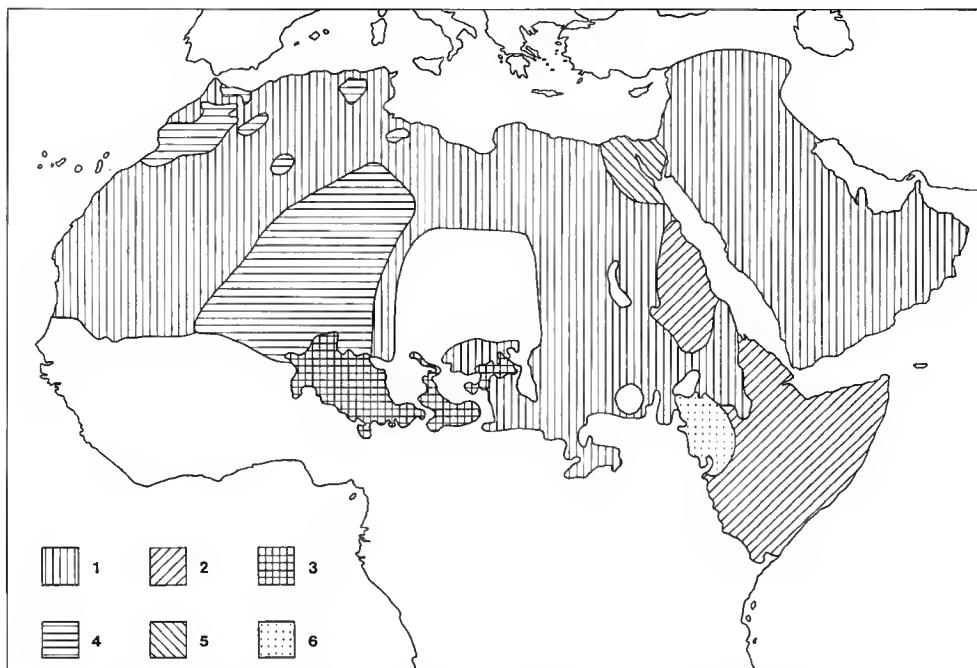


Figure 2. *The Afroasiatic languages. The present-day distribution of languages within the broader language groups which have themselves been classified together within the Afroasiatic family or macrofamily. The constituent language families are as follows: (1) Semitic; (2) Cushitic; (3) Chadic; (4) Berber; (5) Ancient Egyptian; (6) Omotic. (Based on Ruhlen 1991, 86)*

The Altaic language languages are not generally recognized as forming so close-knit a family as the above (Miller 1991), indeed as Ruhlen (1991, 130) puts it: 'There is no consensus today on either the membership or the subgrouping of the Altaic family'. It should be noted that in the discussion which follows Dolgopolsky now includes Korean and Japanese within the Altaic family.

There is considerable convergence between the position of the Nostratic scholars and that adopted by Greenberg (1987, 259) for his Eurasiatic macrofamily, as set out in detail by Ruhlen (1991, 383). It should be noted, however, the Greenberg would include the Eskimo-Aleut languages and Chukchi-Kamchatkan, as well as Ainu and Gilyak within the Eurasiatic macrofamily, while excluding the Afroasiatic, Kartvelian and Dravidian families. So although the macrofamily concept is similar in each case, there are very significant differences. It is to be hoped that these matters will be discussed in some detail when Dolgopolsky's paper is circulated for comment.

The archaeological background to Nostratic

To each language family there must be some underlying archaeological reality. When various populations speak related languages, this circumstance must be the result of concrete historical processes, operating at specific places and at particular times. Linguists have generally assumed (with the notable exception of Trubetzkoy (1939)) that the languages of such a family are indeed the descendants of a proto-language, and that this will have been spoken by a group of people at a given place and time. Archaeologists have generally accepted this view, and have therefore sought the ancestral homeland of the speakers of the proto-language. Such has certainly been the case, for instance, with the Indo-European languages, and the search for the homeland of the Proto-Indo-Europeans, well discussed by Mallory (1989), has been an exhaustive one, still without definitive outcome.

If the Nostratic hypothesis be accepted, the problem becomes a very much bigger one. What sort of homeland does one envisage for the ancestral Proto-Nostratic language far back in time, very possibly in the later part of the Upper Palaeolithic period? Is it really appropriate to speak, in this case, of a restricted homeland for a well and perhaps narrowly defined group of people?

Here Dolgopolsky's paper gives rich food for speculation. He has used the methods of linguistic palaeontology to give what seems like a remarkably full description of what might be regarded as the original environment of the Proto-Nostratic speakers before some of them thought it preferable to leave the area. I have myself argued for caution when making use of a hypothetical protolexikon (Renfrew 1987, 77–82). Earlier generations of archaeologists have argued that the Proto-Indo-Europeans must have been pastoralists rather than agriculturalists, on the grounds that very few words for domesticated food plants are reconstructed into the protolexikon. But more recently archaeologists have come to realise that early Eurasian pastoralists must have been familiar with the crop plants of their agricultural contemporaries. So the absence of such terms from the protolexikon must be viewed as unexplained happenstance rather than as the absence of such elements from the original environment of the Proto-Indo-Europeans. This caution on negative evidence need not, however, detract from the real significance of positive occurrences, so long as the possibility of semantic shift is borne in mind.

The linguistic relationships between neighbours in the Nostratic macrofamily would seem to carry some implications for the location of the speakers of the relevant proto-languages, some considerable time ago. Such arguments led

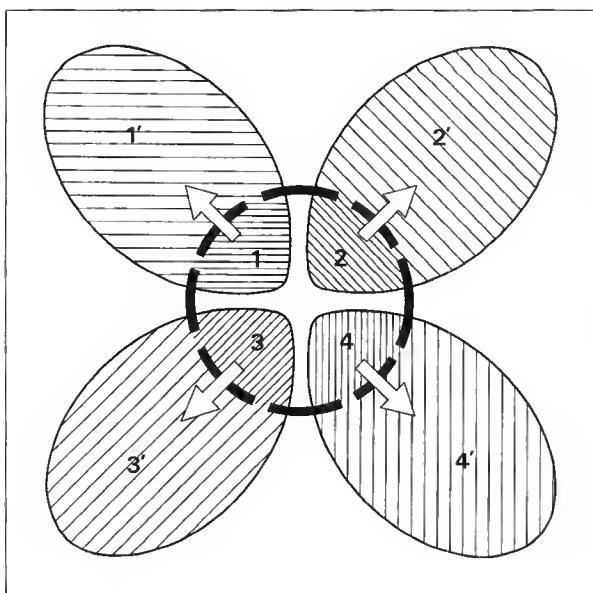


Figure 3. *Idealized model showing the relation between farming origins and language dispersal. When a transition to primary farming occurs within an area with some linguistic diversity (shown within the broken circle) the consequence of the agricultural dispersal is likely to be a series of linguistic replacements in adjoining areas. The lobes represent the areas occupied by the resulting language families derived from the corresponding proto-languages. Such processes may underlie the distribution of several of the world's linguistic macrofamilies: the corresponding version of this hypothesis for the Nostratic macrofamily is represented in Figure 4. (After Sherratt & Sherratt 1988.)*

fore, that the distribution of the languages of the Nostratic macrofamily may be due, at least in part, to processes of agricultural dispersal, and that the original homeland of the Proto-Nostratic speakers lay in western Asia. It is postulated, in particular, that the speakers of Proto-Indo-European were at home in central Anatolia, and the speakers of Proto-Afroasiatic in the Levant, perhaps to be associated with the very early Neolithic of sites such as Jericho. The proposed relationship between the Dravidian languages and Elamite (McAlpin 1974; 1981) may be adduced here, and a homeland for Proto-Elamo-Dravidian located in southwestern Iran (the modern Khuzistan) suggested, where very early farming is well documented at sites such as Ali Kosh. For Proto-Kartvelian, the southern Caucasus might

Dolgopolsky, on purely linguistic grounds, to place the homeland of the speakers of Proto-Indo-European in central Anatolia (Dolgopolsky 1987; 1993), and led Gamkrelidze and Ivanov (1984; 1990; see Gamkrelidze 1990) to locate it in eastern Anatolia (although without adopting the Nostratic hypothesis).

I have suggested (Renfrew 1996) that the distributions of a number of the world's language families may be explained in terms of agricultural dispersals (see Bellwood 1996; Diamond 1997), and that what may hold for the Indo-European family (Renfrew 1987) might similarly be applicable to the other members of the Nostratic macrofamily. This idea is neatly summarized in a diagram devised by Andrew and Susan Sherratt (Sherratt & Sherratt 1988).

It can be suggested, there-

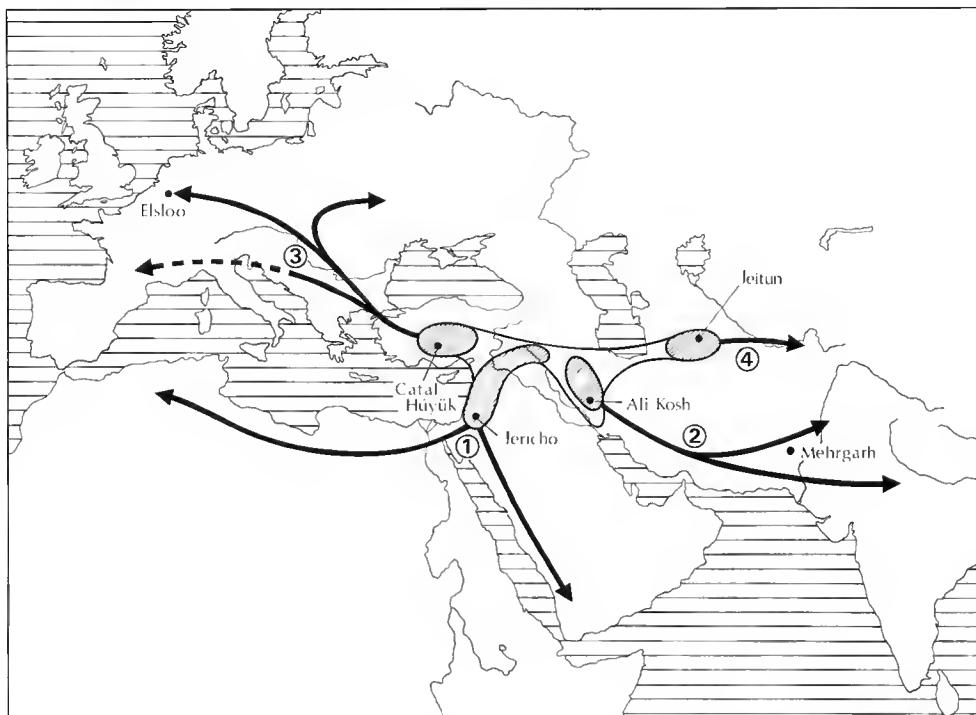


Figure 4. Hypothetical application of the model shown in Figure 3 to account for the distribution of the Nostratic macrofamily. Agricultural dispersals of the related protolanguages originally located within the area where primary farming developed (hatched) are postulated as underlying the subsequent distributions of the (1) Afroasiatic, (2) Elamo-Dravidian, (3) Indo-European, and (4) Altaic language families.

itself lie within the primary zone of agricultural origins, or close to it. And Proto-Altaic might have been spoken in Turkmenia, a region of very early agricultural production. If these are the points or areas of departure around 7000 bc for the early processes of farming dispersal, we can imagine a rather earlier Proto-Nostratic, perhaps already with regional dialects, spoken over a territory including most of these areas, which in particular may well have embraced the region where the Pre-Pottery Neolithic A farming economy first developed (Bar-Yosef 1989) (see Fig. 4).

The appropriate location for the speakers of Proto-Uralic-Yukaghir is less clear, and the region between the Ural mountains and the lower Ob river of western Siberia has been suggested (Hajdu 1964), with a possible dispersal northwards by speakers of the Finno-Ugrian branch to the region of northeastern Europe and the Ural mountains. Nor is it evident that its speakers were in fact agriculturists. Professor Dolgopolsky has indicated (pers. comm.) that the lexical data

show that the speakers of Proto-Finno-Ugrian and probably of Proto-Uralic did not have agriculture, husbandry or pottery but were excellent fishermen. There was indeed a population dispersal northwards, into the Ural mountains and north-western Asia at the end of the Pleistocene period, but the economy was for long one based upon fishing and gathering as well as hunting (see Dolukhanov 1994).

Insofar as these theories involve actual movements of people they may ultimately be open to evaluation by means of molecular genetics. Already aspects of the distribution of gene frequencies in the relevant areas have suggested early population movements compatible with the suggestions made here (Barbujani & Pilastro 1993; Barbujani *et al.* 1994). Further work may well offer support and corroboration, or the converse. If the above suggestions do find support, they will offer a whole new perspective upon the prehistory of Europe, western Asia, south Asia and the Asiatic steppes, as far indeed as Korea and Japan. These are big issues.

It follows from these considerations that Proto-Nostratic would represent the language in its original area of distribution of the population at a time before these various agricultural dispersals took place, and therefore prior to the full development of the Neolithic economy. Such a view may harmonise very well with the content of the word lists developed here by Dolgopolsky which seem to represent the world of the Upper Palaeolithic or Mesolithic hunter-gatherer, apparently prior to the inception of a farming economy.

Problems with macrofamilies

These intriguing speculations are, however, predicated upon the validity of the Nostratic hypothesis. It is relevant, therefore, to take note of the criticisms which have been levelled, by competent linguists, at a number of cases where the proposed amalgamation of language families into macrofamilies is claimed to be of genetic validity.

In colloquial terms, it has been suggested that individual linguists tend to be either 'lumpers' or 'splitters'. The former are quick to see relationships, and to acknowledge the existence of larger linguistic units: they are predisposed to look favourably upon macrofamilies. The splitters, on the other hand, are meticulous in their scholarship, and apt to find fault with individual etymologies and comparisons. Having found fault they are likely to doubt the generalisation, and to place reliance instead upon smaller language units about which they can have greater confidence.

The senior historical linguist among the lumpers must be Joseph Greenberg, whose analysis of the African languages (Greenberg 1963) into just four

macrofamilies (one of them Afroasiatic, as discussed above) was initially criticized upon methodological grounds. The principal criticism was that he relies upon multiple lexical comparisons, comparing directly the words in contemporary languages, without attempting the reconstruction of the relevant proto-languages, following the well-established comparative method, according to the normal practice of historical linguists. Despite this criticism, his classification of the African languages has proved so convenient that it has been adopted almost universally, although that does not necessarily imply that all linguists see the groupings as valid genetic units rather than as simple taxonomic conveniences.

However when Greenberg turned to the languages of the Americas (Greenberg 1987) his work provoked much greater opposition, and indeed sometimes hostility (e.g. Campbell 1986). The objections were broadly the same as in the African case, but they were not so easily overcome. Interestingly there has been what seems strong support for his work from the field of molecular genetics, where ‘tribal private polymorphisms’ — molecular genetic particularities restricted to a single tribe — suggest not only long periods of stability and relative genetic isolation, but also some support for his overall structure of taxonomic relationships. It is perhaps too early to draw firm conclusions, but there is the hope that evidence from molecular genetics will cast more light upon population histories which may in turn have a bearing upon language history also.

In other parts of the world inclusive macrofamilies are certainly being proposed. In southeast Asia, the proposed recognition of an Austric macrofamily (Blust 1993) has formed the basis for the bold archaeological reconstruction of population movements (Higham 1996). Bellwood (1996) has noted a number of other such cases where agricultural may have been accompanied by language dispersal. But these are proposals about supposed correlations between the archaeology and the historical linguistics: they do not, in themselves, validate the existence of the proposed macrofamilies.

When it comes to the Nostratic hypothesis, some of the criticisms levelled at the work Greenberg may not hold. For both Illich-Svitych and Dolgopolsky have worked to analyze the relevant sound correspondences, very much within the tenets of the Brugmannian method. Nonetheless Anna Morpurgo Davies (1989, 167) has well expressed the reservations which a number of senior historical linguists clearly feel:

Linguists seem to be relatively clear about what a language family is. If we say that two languages are related, i.e. ultimately derive from the same parent language, we also predict that the further back we go in time the more similar the forms of the two languages will turn out to be — this may be particularly clear for grammatical forms. If I assume that Greek and Iranian

are related I also predict that ancient Greek must be closer to Old Persian than Modern Persian. On the other hand I do not see any reason to predict that Early Tamil (a non-Indo-European language) must be closer to Ancient Greek than to Modern Greek. We make these predictions with some confidence because over the years we have developed and tested the method which we use to demonstrate linguistic kinship. This obviously starts by comparing words but then goes back further and makes use of regular phonological correspondence and, if possible, of morphological comparison. On the other hand, if we take as an example of how superfamilies are established the latest book by J. Greenberg about the languages of America, we discover that there the methodology is very different. Greenberg does not rely on phonological or morphological correspondences, but on what he calls ‘multilateral comparison’, i.e. on lexical similarities studied in a number of languages at the same time. He jettisons the standard techniques not because they lead to wrong conclusions but because they do not allow him to go beyond standard families. Yet we do not know whether superfamilies established in this way have the same properties as the families established with the standard comparative method. If they do not, there is a serious risk that the whole concept of superfamily is vacuous. At the moment it is not clear to me whether this is or is not so and I would like some enlightenment.

The operational difficulty lies in each case in developing some methodology which will allow doubts and reservations about the real existence of macrofamilies to be followed through and tested. It should again be noted however that the criticisms levelled against Greenberg’s method of multilateral comparison are not entirely appropriate in the case of the Nostratic macrofamily, whose exponents do indeed establish phonological correspondences, and seek to use the standard comparative method (see Anttila 1972).

It is, as Ruhlen (1991; 1994) has remarked, often the more traditional Indo-Europeanists who are most hostile to such approaches, particularly when the outcome does not harmonise with what they sometimes consider to be well established conclusions. This is well exemplified by a recent, authoritative work which pronounces as follows (Sergent 1995, 398: my translation):

Moreover a whole school of linguists holds that Indo-European, Semito-Hamitic, the groups of languages termed ‘Altaic’ (Uralic, Turk, Tungus, Mongol), Dravidian, and more besides, form a single immense group termed ‘Nostratic’. A Russian team has thus formed the ‘Moscow Nostratic circle’ to study these relationships (Dolgopolsky 1986). In reality they are based essentially on vocabulary, and the structure of the languages is scarcely considered (indeed the group called ‘Altaic’ is in this sense an artificial one). Among all these comparisons, only those between Indo-European and Semito-Hamitic appear to rely upon early and deep relationships.

It should be understood that such observations must perforce be based upon rather brief accounts of the Nostratic hypothesis: Sergent refers only to short articles by Dolgopolsky and Illich-Svitych. Dixon’s recent and severely negative assessment (‘There is no reputable historical linguist anywhere in the world, who accepts the claims of Greenberg and the Nostraticists’) may work from simi-

lar limitations (Dixon 1997, 37–44). It will therefore be interesting to see whether so dismissive a tone can be maintained in face of the more ample word-lists offered here, and ultimately in the light of Dolgopolsky's forthcoming *Nostratic Dictionary*.

How to judge?

There must be some means, within the field of historical linguistics, of reaching a conclusion on such matters. It is not difficult to see that corroborative data can come from other disciplines. We have seen that statements from historical linguistics which have a bearing upon population history may well be tested by archaeological means, and in particular by applications of molecular genetics. But such applications can never tell us anything *directly* about a specific language, or about linguistic relationships *per se*.

The evidence for such familial (or macrofamilial) relationships has always come primarily from individual words, and more persuasively from collections of individual words. These are precisely what Aharon Dolgopolsky offers in the main body of his text. When words of equivalent or related meaning occur in two languages (or more), and the forms of those words suggest that, taking account of systematic sound changes, they may derive from a hypothetical common ancestor, then there is strong evidence of family relationship. Of course there are provisos about the exclusion of loan words etc. But one can at once see that such arguments in favour may be criticized on at least three grounds. First the semantic equivalence may not be so close as to inspire confidence. Secondly the proposed regularities for sound change may not be sufficiently precise as closely to determine the two versions in the two languages concerned. And thirdly the formal equivalences may not carry conviction: the similarity may not be sufficient. All these issues have to be assessed soberly for each specific case.

Already such disagreements have developed with reference to comparisons between constituent language families of the Nostratic macrofamily. Klimov (1991) criticized the equivalences between Kartvelian and Indo-European offered by Illich-Svitych for a number of words in his substantial Nostratic vocabulary. Several of Klimov's objections were, in turn, subject to criticism by Manaster-Ramer (1995) who took a more favourable view of the original proposals.

Clearly the arguments in favour may carry greater conviction when appropriately derived word forms carrying the relevant meaning are found in a whole series of languages within the macrofamily. But the sceptic may claim that when the number of constituent languages is large (as in the Nostratic case) the likeli-

hood of some apparent formal equivalences occurring here and there among them just by chance is commensurately greater. Ultimately these are questions in the field of probability, but they are very difficult to assess quantitatively.

Perhaps all that one may hope for is precisely what Dolgopol'sky here offers: a large number of concrete cases presented for our consideration. To a layman it seems improbable in the extreme that the equivalences which he shows would be the product of purely random variations among words which in fact have no genetic relationship. But that is an assessment by a non-specialist. What we await is the judgement of specialists. There is no doubt that the Nostratic hypothesis, if considered valid, is of the highest interest to prehistorians, and indeed to those concerned with population history, as well as to historical linguists. But it is for the historical linguists in the first instance to decide whether the evidence on offer is sufficient to lead to the general acceptance of the hypothesis.

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The Nostratic Macrofamily and Linguistic Palaeontology

Aharon Dolgopolsky

Classification of the Nostratic languages

Classification of the Nostratic languages

I. Indo-European

A. *Anatolian*: Hittite, Luwian, Hieroglyphic Luwian, Palaic, Lydian, Lycian;

B. *Narrow Indo-European*: (1) Indo-Iranian (Aryan): [1a] Indo-Aryan: Old Indian, Middle Indian (Pali, Prakrits), New Indo-Aryan lgs., [1b] Iranian: Avestan, Old Persian, Middle Persian (Pahlavi), New Persian, Tajik, Kurdish, Sogdian, Yagnobi, Pushtu (Afghan), Pamir languages (Wakhi, etc.), Khotan Saka, Old Scythian, Ossetic, etc., [1c] Nuristani and Dardic languages (incl. Kafiri); (2) Greek, Macedonian; (3) Phrygian; (4) Thracian, Dacian, Albanian; (5) Illyric, Messapic; (6) Italic: Latin (with the Romance languages), Oscan, Umbrian; (7) Venetic; (8) Celtic: Gaulish, Celtiberic, Goidelic (Old Irish, Middle Irish, [New] Irish, Scottish Gaelic), Brythonic (Welsh, Cornish, Breton); (8) Germanic: Gothic, Old Runic Scandinavian, Old Norse, Icelandic, Faroesc, Swedish, Danish, Gutnian, Norwegian, Old High German, Middle High German, New High German, modern German dialects, Yiddish, Old Saxon, Middle Low German, Dutch (with Afrikaans), Anglo-Saxon (Old English), Middle English, English; (9) Balto-Slavic: [9a] Baltic: Lithuanian, Latvian, Prussian, [9b] Slavic: Old Church Slavonic, Church Slavonic, Bulgarian, Macedonian Slavic, Serbo-Croatian, Slovene, Czech, Slovak, Low Lusatian (Low Sorbian), High Lusatian (High Sorbian), Polabian, Polish, Old Russian, Russian, Belorussian, Ukrainian; (10) Armenian; (11) Tocharian.

II. Hamito-Semitic (Afroasiatic)

A. *Semitic*: (1) Eastern Semitic: Akkadian, (?) Eblaitic; (2) Central Semitic: [1] Canaanite: Old South Canaanite, Hebrew, Phoenician (with Punic), Ugaritic, Amorite, etc., [2] Aramaic lgs.: Old Aramaic, Imperial Aramaic, Jewish Aramaic, Syriac, Mandaic, etc., [3] Arabic, Maltese, Thamudic, Safa'itic, etc.; (3) South Semitic: [1] Old South Arabian (Sabaic, Minaean, Qatabanic, Himyaritic, etc.), Ethiosemitic: Old Ethiopian, Ge'ez, Tigre, Tigray (Tigrinya), Amharic, Harari, Gurage lgs., etc., [2] South-East Semitic: Mehri, Harsusi, Jibbali, Soqotri, etc.;

B. *Egyptian*: [Ancient] Egyptian, Demotic Egyptian, Coptic;

C. *Berber*: Old Libyan (Numidian), Twareg (Ahaggar Twareg, Eastern Tawellemmet, Tayert, Ghat, etc.), Kabyle, Tashelhit, Tamazight, Rif, Beni-Iznacen, Srar-Senhadja, Mzab, Wargla, Nefusi, Siwa, Ghadamsi, Aujila, etc.; Guanche;

D. *Cushitic*: (1) Beja; (2) Agaw (= Central Cushitic): Awngi, Bilin, Kemant, Kwara, Khamir (Khamtanga), etc.; (3) East Cushitic: [1] Lowland East Cushitic: Afar, Saho, Somali, Boni, Rendille, Baiso, Oromo (Galla), Konso, Gidole, Arbore, Dasenech, Dullay cluster (Tsamay, Hollango, Grawwada, Harso, etc.), Yaku, [2] Highland East Cushitic: Sidamo, Darasa, Hadiya, Kambatta, Burji, etc., (4) Dahalo (not yet classified); (5) South Cushitic: [1] Iraqw, Alagwa, Gorowa, Burunge, [2] Asa, Kwadza, as well the Cushitic layer of loanwords within Mbugu;

E. *Omotic*: (1) North Omotic: Kaffa, Mocha, Anfillo, Shinasha, Ometo dialect cluster (Gofa, Wolayta, Dawro, Oyda, Basketo, Badditu, Doka, Zayse, Kachama, Chara, Ganjule, Zergulla, Malec, Dache, Gamu, etc.), Janjero, Bench, She, etc., (2) Dizoid: Maji, Na'o, Shako, (3) South Omotic: Ari, Bako, Dime, Hamer;

F. *Chadic*: (1) West Chadic: [1a] Hausa, Gwandara, [1b] Angas-Goemay: Angas, Sura, Goemay (Ankwe), Kofyar, Montol, Yiwom (Gerka), Chip, Tal, etc., [1c] Bole-Tangale: Bole, Dera, Karekare, Tangale, Pero, Kirfi, Bele, Gera, etc., [1d] Ron gr.: Bokkos, Daffo, Butura, Fyer, Kulere, Sha, Tambas, [1e] North Bauchi lgs.: Warji, Tsagu, Kariya, Mburku, Miya, Pa'a, Siryanchi, Diri, Jimbin; [1f] South Bauchi: Boghom, Dwat, Guruntum, Jimi, Polchi, Saya, Wangday, Zar, Kir, Dira, Geji, etc., [1g] Ngizim, Bade, Duwai; (2) Central Chadic: [2a] Tera gr.: Tera, Ga'anda, Pidlimti, etc., [2b] Bura-Margi gr.: Margi, Bura, Chibak, Kilba, Wamdiu, etc., [2c] Higi gr., [2d] Bata-Bachama gr.: Bata (Bata-Garua & Bata-Dems), Bachama, Nzangi, Gude, Gudu, Fali of Jilbu, Fali of Muchella, Fali of Bwagira, Mwulyen, etc., [2e] Lamang, [2f] Mandara gr.: Mandara, Dghwede, Glavda, Gava, Nakatsa, Padokwo, etc.. [2g] Sukur, [2h] Matakam gr.: Giziga, Mafa, Mofu-Gudur, Matakam, etc., [2i] Daba, Kola, Musgoy, [2j] Gidar, [2k] Kotoko: Logon, Kotoko, Buduma, Affade, etc., [2l] Musgu gr.: Musgu, Musgum-Pus, Mulwi, etc., [2m] Masa lgs.: Masa, Bana, Banana, Lame, Lame-Peve, Zime, Zime-Batna, etc.; (3) East Chadic: [3a] Kera, Kwang, [3b] Kabalay, Lele, [3c] Somray, Ndam, Tumak, [3d] Sokoro, [3e] Dangla, Bidiya, Mokilko, Migama, [3f] Mubi, Jegu, Birgit.

III. Kartvelian

(1) Old Georgian, Georgian; Zan: Megrelian, Laz, (2) Svan.

IV. Uralic (Uralo-Yukagir)

A. *Finno-Ugrian*: (1) Finno-Permian: [1a] Finno-Lappish; {1a α } Balto-Finnic: Finnish, Karelian, Estonian, Livonian, etc., {1a β } Lapp (Lappish), [2] Erzya-Mordvin and Moksha-Mordvin, [3] Cheremis, [4] Permian: Old Permian, Ziryene, Permyak, Yazvian dial., Votyak; (2) Ugrian: [2a] Hungarian, [2b] Ob-Ugrian: Vogul and Ostyak;

B. *Samoyedic*: (1) Nenets, Enets, Nganasan, (2) Sölkup, (3) Kamassian, Koibal, (4) Mator-Taigi-Karagas;

C. *Yukagir*.

V. Altaic

A. *Turkic*: (1) Bulghar gr.: Old Bulghar, Chuvash; (2) Narrow Turkic: Old Turkic, Middle Turkic, Old Uighur, [2a] Oghuz: Old Osman, Middle Osman, Osman Turkish, Turkish, Gagauz, Azeri, Türkmen, Salar, etc., [2b] Qipchaq: Old Qipchaq, Middle Qipchaq (incl. Cumanic), Qumiq, Qarachay-Balqar, Crimean Tatar, Karaite, Volga Tatar, Siberian Tatar dialect cluster, Bashqurt (Bashkirian), Noghay, Qazaq, Qaraqalpaq, etc., [2c] Qirgiz, Standard Altay, Altay-Kizhi, Qumanda, Quu-Kizhi, Teleut, [2d] Chaghatai, Uzbek, East Turkic (New Uighur), [2e] Khakas, Saghay, Qacha, Shor, Chulim, Beltir, Sarig-Yugur, [2f] Tuva, Tofalar, [2g] Yakut, [2h] Khalaj;

B. *Mongolic*: Middle Mongolian, Classical (Written) Mongolian, Halha-Mongolian, Buryat, Classical (Written) Oirat, (New) Oriat, Kalmuck, Ordos, Dagur, Monguor, Dongxiang (Tunghsiang), Baoan, Old Moghol, Moghol;

C. *Tungusic (Manchu-Tungus)*: [1] Ewenki, Negidal, Solon, Lamut, [2] Nanay, Orochi, Ulcha, Ude, Orok, [3] Manchu: (Classical [Written] Manchu, spoken Sibe Manchu), Jurchen;

D. *Korean*;

E. *Japanese*.

VI. Dravidian

- (1) South Drav.: Tamil, Malayalam, Kota, Toda, Tulu, Kannada, Kodagu, (2) South-Central Drav.: Telugu, Gondi, Konda, Manda, Pengo, Kui, Kuwi, (3) Central Dravidian: Gadba, Kolami, Naiki of Chanda, Naikri, Parji, (4) Northern Drav.: Kurukh, Malto; (5) Brahui.

For a more detailed and comprehensive classification of languages (and dialects) *cf.* my *Nostratic Dictionary* (in preparation).

The Linguistic Palaeontology of the Nostratic Macrofamily

Transcription signs and other symbols

In my papers I distinguish between transcription (rendering the phonemes and allophones of the language in question) and transliteration (rendering the characters of the original script). For transcription (as well as for reconstructions) a unified transcription script is used: а, б, с, д, е, etc., while for transliteration (as well as for rendering the original Roman spelling of the language in question and for literal quoting of other scholars) a special transliteration-quotation script is used: а, б, с, д, е, etc.

The transliteration is either traditional (for languages with long scholarly tradition of transliteration, such as Old Indian, Avestan, Gothic, etc.) or partially approaching our transcription system (e.g. for Egyptian we use з, с, һ, ȝ, ȝ̄, ȝ̄̄, ȝ̄̄̄ instead of Erman-Grapow's ȝ, ȝ̄, ȝ̄̄, ȝ̄̄̄, ȝ̄̄̄̄; for the ancient Semitic languages we use һ, ȝ, ȝ̄, ȝ̄̄, ȝ̄̄̄, ȝ̄̄̄̄ instead of the traditional ȝ, ȝ̄, ȝ̄̄, ȝ̄̄̄, ȝ̄̄̄̄ of the Orientalistic transcription). For Tamil, Malayalam, Tulu, Kannada and Telugu we use the traditional indological transliteration.

Main transcription signs:

I. Consonants:

? — glottal stop; ' — weak glottal stop, sub-phonemic glottal stop, glottal stop as a feature of an adjacent phoneme; ؤ — epiglottal voiced approximant (Arabic ؤ); ب' (= ب) — injective glottalized or preglottalized ب; پ (= پ) — fricative پ; س — voiceless hissing affricate (= تـس), like german з in Herz; ڦ — glottalized (ejective) س, Nostratic emphatic س; ڦ — palatal (or palatalized) voiceless sibilant affricate (≈ Polish ڦ); ڦ' — ejective ڦ, Nostr. emphatic ڦ; ڦ — voiceless hushing affricate (like English ڦـهـ); ڦ' — ejective ڦ, Nostr. emphatic ڦ; ڦ — voiceless lateral affricate; ڦ' — ejective lateral affricate, Nostr. emphatic ڦ; ڦ (in proto-Kartvelian) = Klimov's ڦ; ڦ' (in proto-Kartvelian) = Klimov's ڦ'; ڻ — voiceless palatal stop (like Hungarian ڻـيـ); ڻ — voiceless lingual affricate (without phonemic distinction between س, ڦ, ڦ and ڦ) or a voiceless palatal or sibilant consonant (without phonemic distinction between affricates and ڻ or between sibilant affricates and pure [fricative] sibilants); ڦ' (= ڦ) — injective glottalized or preglottalized ڦ; ڻ — uvularized ('emphatic') ڦ, like Modern Standard Arabic ڻ; ڻ (= ڻ) — voiced fricative dental (English ڻـهـ in this, Spanish ڻ in nـادـا); ڻ — uvularized ('emphatic') ڻ, like Arabic ڻـكـ; ڻ = postalveolar (cacuminal, cerebral, retroflex) ڻ; ڻ (= ڻ) — fricative voiceless bilabial consonant (bilabial ڻ); ڻ (= ڻ) — injective glottalized or preglottalized ڻ; ڻ = voiced uvular stop; ڻ — voiced velar fricative (fricative ڻ), like in Spanish trigo; ڻ — voiced uvular fricative (like Arabic ڻـكـ); ڻ — uvularized

('emphatic') voiced uvular fricative; ḥ — voiceless epiglottal fricative (like Arabic ح = ḥ of the Orientalistic Transcription); j — voiced palatal fricative (like the initial consonant in French *hier* [jɛ̃];) — voiced palatal stop (like Hungarian gy); k' — ejective k, Nostr. emphatic k; ī — palatal (or palatalized) l, like Italian gl in voglio;] — postalveolar (cacuminal, cerebral, retroflex) l; ṭ — velarized l (like Russian т); ḥ — voiceless l; ḥ — voiceless l; λ - a special type of palatal l (different from ī), as in Uralic and Finno-Ugrian, where *λ stands for the traditional (FUV) *δ- (in the word-initial position); ᶻ — consonant intermediate between r and l; ɳ — velar or uvular nasal consonant (like ng in English long); ɳ — palatal (or palatalized) n, like French gn in régner; ɳ — alveolar n (like Tamil ற); ɳ (= ɳ) — postalveolar (cacuminal, cerebral, retroflex) n; p' — ejective p, Nostr. emphatic p; q — voiceless uvular stop (like Arabic ق); q — ejective uvular stop, Nostr. emphatic q; r — cerebral flap or tap (like Spanish r in cara, or like Hausa r in sarki); ɳ — alveolar trill (in contrast to post-dental) [ɳ = ɳ of Dravidianist notation]; R — uvular flap or tap; ʂ — uvular trill (like German r); ʂ — voiceless hushing sibilant (like English sh); ʂ — palatal (or palatalized) s (≈ Polish ś, Russian сь); ʂ — voiceless lateral consonant; ʂ — uvularized ('emphatic') s, like Arabic ص ; t' — ejective t, Nostr. emphatic t; t — postalveolar (cacuminal, cerebral, retroflex) t; t — uvularized ("emphatic") t, like Arabic ط ; θ (= t) — voiceless dental (or interdental) fricative (like English th in thin); θ' — ejective θ; χ (= k) — voiceless velar fricative (like Russian х); χ — voiceless uvular fricative (like Spanish j and Arabic ج) = ح of the Orientalistic Transcription; y — palatal approximant (like y in English yes); z — voiced hissing sibilant (like in English zoɔ); ź — voiced hushing sibilant (like French j); ź — voiced palatalized sibilant (like Polish ź or Russian зь); ź — uvularized ('emphatic') z, like in Berber (ڙ of the Orientalistic Transcription); Ž — voiced lateral fricative; Ž (= Ž) — uvularized ('emphatic') Ž (or Ÿ), like 8th cent. Arabic ض ; Ž — voiced hissing affricate (= đž), like in Italian zzo logia; Ž — voiced hushing affricate (like English j); Ž — voiced palatal (or palatalized) affricate (like Polish đż); Ž (in proto-Kartvelian) = Klimov's ჟ; Ž — voiced lateral affricate; ڙ — voiced lingual affricate (without phonemic distinction between ڙ, ڙ, ڙ and ڙ) or a voiced palatal or sibilant consonant (without phonemic distinction between affricates and J or between sibilant affricates and pure [fricative] sibilants).

Laryngeal consonants of Early Indo-European: h — weak (yielding zero in Anatolian Indo-European) a-colouring laryngeal (≈ Puhvel's *A₂); ḥ — weak (yielding zero in Anatolian) e-colouring laryngeal (≈ Puhvel's *E₂); h^w — weak (yielding zero in Anatolian) o-colouring laryngeal (≈ Puhvel's *A_{1w}); x —

strong (yielding h , hh in Hittite) a -colouring laryngeal (\approx Puhvel's $*\text{A}_1$); $\hat{\text{x}}$ — strong (yielding h , hh in Hittite) e -colouring laryngeal (\approx Puhvel's $*\text{E}_1$); x^ω — strong (yielding h , hh in Hittite) o -colouring laryngeal (\approx Puhvel's $*\text{A}_2^\omega$); $\text{H} = \text{h|x}; \hat{\text{H}} = \text{h}\hat{\text{x}}$; $\text{H}^\omega = \text{h}^\omega|\text{x}^\omega$; h — weak laryngeal (lost in Anatolian) of unknown colouring (\approx Puhvel's $*\text{H}_2$); X — strong laryngeal (yielding h , hh in Anatolian) of unknown colouring (\approx Puhvel's $*\text{H}_1$); ? — weak laryngeal (yielding zero in Anatolian), lost in zero-grade of apophony (unlike all other laryngeals, which yield Narrow Indo-European $*\text{ə}$ in the zero-grade of apopony); H — unspecified laryngeal (\approx Puhv.'s $*\text{H}$).

2. Vowels:

$\ddot{\text{a}}$ (= æ) — front low vowel; $\dot{\text{a}}$ — vowel intermediate between $\ddot{\text{a}}$ and a ; ä — labialized low vowel; e — high a ; o — back a ; ʌ — central low-mid vowel (in Korean ʌ = Korean {Lee} ʌ , {Starostin} $\ddot{\text{a}}$, {Ramstedt} ə); ɛ — front low-mid vowel; ə — ultra-bref (reduced) central vowel, or ultra-bref vowel without phonologic distinction of quality (in Chuvash ə = orthographic ĕ); ɔ — back mid vowel (like Estonian ö ; in Korean ɔ = Korean {Lee} ə , {Starostin} ə , {Ramstedt} ə); l — low i (like i in English bi); t — high mid vowel (like Russian ui); ɪ — high back vowel (as Turkish i); ɔ̄ — labialized back low-mid vowel (like British English o in dog); $\ddot{\text{o}}$ (= œ) — labialized front mid vowel (labialized e); $\ddot{\text{ō}}$ — labialized front low-mid vowel (labialized ɛ); $\dot{\text{o}}$ — vowel intermediate between $\ddot{\text{o}}$ and o ; $\text{ø}, \text{@} (= \text{ō})$ — high o , intermediate between o and u ; ø̄ — centralized o ; ō — non-phonemic vocoid; ō̄ — non-phonemic vocoid (schwa secundum) in proto-IE; ɔ̄̄ — preconsonantic voiceless vowel glide (as in Lappish) [the same sign is used when the final part of the preceding vowel is voiceless (as in Lule-Lappish, as described by Wiklund: $\text{ɔ̄̄} =$ Wiklund's ō̄)]; ʊ — low u ; $\ddot{\text{ʊ}}$ — labialized front high vowel (labialized i), like German ü and French u ; $\ddot{\text{ʊ̄}}$ — labialized front lowered high vowel (labialized t); $\ddot{\text{ū}}$ — vowel intermediate between $\ddot{\text{ʊ}}$ and u ; ʉ̄ — centralized u ; b̄ — ultra-short back vowel (= ə̄ of the Finno-Ugric Transcription) [$\text{b̄} =$ Chuvash ă̄ , Volga Tatar and Bashqurt short ui , High Cheremis ui]; b̄̄ — ultra-short rounded back vowel (= Volga Tatar and Bashqurt ō̄); b̄̄̄ — ultra-short (reduced) front vowel [$\text{b̄̄̄} =$ Volga Tatar, Bashqurt ə̄ , ē (after a consonant)]; b̄̄̄̄ — ultra-short rounded front vowel (= Volga Tatar, Bashqurt ə̄̄̄); z̄ — central mid vowel.

3. Diacritical signs:

(1) with consonant letters:

$\text{'} (\text{s}', \text{t}', \text{b}')$ — glottalization (both ejective and voiced injective), including preglottalization, in Nostratic reconstructions it denotes an emphatic

articulation (without commitment as to its exact phonetic articulation: glottalization, aspiration or tenseness); č (đ, č, č) — uvularization ('emphasis', as in Arabic and Berber); ‘ (to the right of the letter: t‘, k‘, p‘) — fortis; ˇ (to the right of the letter: tˇ, kˇ, pˇ) — lenis; h (to the right of the letter: t^h, k^h, p^h) — aspirate; h (to the left of the letter: h^t, h^k, h^p) — preaspirate; ˘ (to the right of the letter: b[˘], g[˘], d[˘], z[˘], r[˘], l[˘], m[˘], n[˘], ŋ[˘]) — devoiced or half-voiced = small caps of the Finno-Ugric Transcription; ˘ (under the letter: b[˘], d[˘], g[˘], k[˘], p[˘], t[˘], ŋ[˘]) — fricativity resulting from lenition (fricative variants of phonemes or morphophonemes, as in Hebrew, Aramaic and Berber); ˘ (t[˘], đ[˘], ŋ[˘]) — alveolar (in contrast with dental or post-dental) consonant [t[˘], đ[˘], ŋ[˘]] = ˘, ˘, ˘ of the Dravidianist notation]; ˘ (to the right of the letter: k[˘], g[˘], x[˘]) — palatalization; ˘ (over the letter) or ‘ (to the right of the letter) — weak palatalization (ə-palatalization); ˘ (to the right of the letter: k[˘], g[˘], x[˘]) — labialization; ˘ (over the letter) — nasalization; ˘ (š, ñ, etc.) = ˘ (ʂ, ʐ, etc.) — postalveolar or retroflex consonants; ˘, ˘, ˘ — domal infradental infralabialized sibilants, like in Central Jibbali (Johnstone's ʂ, ʐ, ʂ̥) or in Twi (Ghana) [ʂ = [ʃ] of the IPA transcription];

(2) with vowel letters:

˘ denotes nasality: ˘ = nasal a [in Slavic languages nasality is denoted by a cedille: ˘ = ˘]; ‘ (over the letter) denotes creaky phonation of vowels: ‘ is creaky i (and Tuva ыр), while ‘ is creaky i (and Tuva ир); ˘ and ˘ (before the letter) denote "interrupted" vowels (in Ude) (the sign chosen in accordance with the source: ˘ if the source indicates a kind of ˘); ˘ (under the vowel letter) denotes close vowels (˘ = ɳ, closed e) [in Tungusic it denotes vowels of the higher series of synharmonism]; ˘ (under the vowel letter) denotes open vowels (˘ = ε) [in proto-Tungusic and Tungusic languages it denotes the vowels of the lower series of vowel harmony]; ‘ denotes retracted vowels (‘ = retracted a); ‘ denotes advanced vowels (‘ = advanced a); ˘ (under the letter) — broadened vowel; ˘ (under the letter) — narrowed vowel; ˘ denotes front vowels (ä, ü, ö); ˘ denotes half-front vowels (ö, ü); ˘ denotes glides (English my [maj], Spanish bien [bjen], bueno ['bueno]); ˘ (to the right of the vowel letter) denotes devoiced vowels (as in Japanese and Oromo prosody).

4. Quantitative differences of vowels:

Vowel letters without diacritics of length or shortness denote short vowels (in languages with an opposition short vs. long) and normal ('full') vowels (in languages with an opposition normal vs. ultra-short and with a triple opposition long vs. short vs. ultra-short) [an exception: special letters for

ultra-short (reduced) vowels **a**, **ə**, **ø**; **~** is a sign for short vowels, e.g. **ä**; **~** (on the higher supralineal level) denotes an ultra-short vowel, e.g. **å**; letters followed by **'** denote half-long vowels; letters with a macron **—** or with a following colon **:** denote long vowels; letters followed by **:'** denote ultra-long vowels.

5. Tones and stress

' (before the syllable) — full stress; **,** (before the syllable) — weak stress. The tones are denoted mostly by supralineal signs over vowels, e.g. by signs of the second supralineal level (higher than regular supralineal signs): **'** — high tone [in Korean and Japanese this sign is quoted after Starostin's papers]; **—** low tone [in Kor. and Jap. this sign is quoted after Starostin's papers]; **~** — middle tone; **^** — falling high-to-mid tone; **~^** — falligh high-to-low tone; **~'** — falling mid-to-low tone; **^'** — rising low-to-high tone; **~'** — rising low-to-mid tone; **~'** — rising mid-to-high tone (mid rise tone); **~"** — high rise tone (as in Wedekind's records of Janjero); **~"** — very low tone; **~"** — very high tone. In proto-Slavic reconstructions the syllabic intonation (Slavic accents) are denoted according the Slavistic tradition.

6. Uncertainty signs, signs of reconstruction

| "or" (**æe** means "a or e").

Capital letters denote classes of phonemes: **P** = unspecified labial stop, **T** = unspecified dental stop, **K** = **k'|g**, **H** = unspecified laryngeal, **X** = **h|x**, **Γ** = **g|y**, **L** = unspecified lateral resonant, **R** = unspecified vibrant, flap or tap, **N** = unspecified nasal consonant; **C** = unspecified affricate, **Z** = unspecified voiced affricate, **S** = unspecified sibilant (or lateral obstruent) [**s**, **š**, **š̄**, **z**, **ž**, **ž̄**, Kartyv. **š̄**], **Ž** = **ž|ž̄**, **U** = unspecified round vowel, **E** = unspecified front vowel.

▽ (or **V**) is un unspecified vowel.

⊥ (in reconstructions) is an unspecified consonant; in formulas we use **C** as a general sign for consonant.

X is an unspecified back vowel (or unspecified non-front vowel).

[] — uncertainty brackets: **[a]** = a or similar.

[a] — uncertainty brackets: **[a]** = a or nothing.

***** — sign of reconstruction.

***°** — a reconstruction based on one daughter- or granddaughter-language only.

****** — a questionable reconstruction or a result of "internal reconstruction".

? — a questionable Nostratic etymology, or a questionable cognate.

?σ — a semantically doubtful connection.

?φ — a phonetically doubtful connection.

?μ — a morphologically doubtful connection (the derivation is not clear, the root structure is deviant, etc.).

amb — a word\root is ambiguous, i.e. may have two (or more) different etymologies.

ἱ — a questionable reconstruction of a daughter-language, or (before '...') a questionable semantic interpretation of a reconstructed or an attested word; 'the sign 'ἱ' before a language name means that the very existence of the form in question is dubious.

ἱ — a possibly ideophonic root (incl. onomatopoeic and Lallwort).

* — sign of a non-existing form or a non-existing meaning.

err. — erroneously.

7. Other signs

✓ — consonantic verbal root (in the Hamito-Semitic languages); ~ — variant forms; ↗ — dialectal variants; / — apophonic and other morphological variants of a root\stem distributed according to their morphological function; \ = "or", "and\or" (e.g. in definitions of meaning and among alternative hypothetic reconstructions); → — source of borrowing, borrowed to (a → b = 'b borrowed from a'); ← — borrowed from (a ← b = 'a borrowed from b'); ⇌ — source of derivation (a ⇌ b = 'b derived from a'); ⇍ — derived from (a ⇍ b = 'a derived from b'); || — bar between primary families of languages (Hamito-Semitic, Kartvelian, Indo-European, Uralic, Altaic, Dravidian, Elamic); ||| — bar between secondary families (Anatolian IE, Narrow IE, Semitic, Egyptian, Cushitic, Chadic, Finno-Ugrian, Samoyed, Yukagir, Turkic, Mongolian, Tungusian, Korean) within one family: e. g. Turkic ||| Mongolic ||| Tungusic (within Altaic); || — bar between branches of families (e.g. Germanic, Balto-Slavic, East Cushitic, Central Chadic, Finno-Permian, Ugrian); | — bar between subbranches (e.g., Slavic [within Balto-Slavic], Iranian [within Indo-Iranian], Baltic Finnic, Ob Ugrian, Bole-Tangale); ¶ — sign preceding comment referring to a secondary family; ¶¶ — sign preceding comment referring to a primary family; ◇ — sign preceding comment referring to a Nostratic etymon; + = 'akin to', 'a cognate of'.

The Linguistic Palaeontology of the Nostratic Macrofamily

1. The Nostratic macrofamily

This is a hypothetic macro-family of languages, including Indo-European, Hamito-Semitic [= Afroasiatic] (Semitic, Egyptian, Berber, Cushitic, Omotic and Chadic), Kartvelian, Uralic (Finn-Ugric, Samoyed and Yukagir), Altaic (Turkic, Mongolic, Tungusic [Manchu-Tungus], Korean and Japanese), and Dravidian. The hypothesis is based on a large amount (more than 2000) of common roots and many common grammatical morphemes, in which regular sound correspondences have been established (cf. Illich-Svitych 1967; 1968; 1971–84; Dolgopolsky 1964; 1969; 1970; 1984; 1989; 1992; 1995). Among the most important resemblances is that of personal pronouns and inflectional person-markers of the 1st and 2nd persons (*mV for 'I' in Indo-European, Uralic, Altaic and Kartvelian, *t̄ü > *t̄i for 'thou' in Indo-European, Hamito-Semitic, Uralic, Mongolic, etc.), that of interrogative pronouns (originally *k̄o for 'who' and *m̄i for 'what', preserved entirely or partially in Indo-European, Hamito-Semitic, Kartvelian, Uralic and Altaic), basic lexical roots such as *pešo 'stay' (> 'be') preserved in Indo-European (*es-), Hamito-Semitic, Uralic and Kartvelian, *pitä 'to eat' (Indo-European, Ham.-Sem., Mongolic), *bari 'to take' (all branches except Uralic), *wetV 'water' (all branches except Kartvelian), *nim?V 'name, to name' (Indo-European, Hamito-Semitic, Uralic, Altaic), as well as words connected with culture of the final palaeolithic age, e.g., *kälu 'woman of another moiety' > words for 'daughter-in-law', 'sister-in-law' and 'bride' in Indo-European (Latin *glos*, Greek γάλως, Slavic *zolv-), Semitic, Uralic, Altaic and Dravidian. The original Nostratic phonology (as reconstructed by V. Illich-Svitych and A. Dolgopolsky) had a rich consonant system (opposition of voiced — voiceless — emphatic [= ejectives or fortis], three series of sibilants and affricates, lateral obstruents, laryngeal, pharyngeal and uvular consonants) and 7 vowels. The grammatical structure was, most probably, analytical with a rigid word order (a sentence-final verb, attribute precedes its head, pronominal subject follows its verb) and with grammatical meanings expressed by word order, postpositions (*nu for genitive, *ma for marked accusative, and others) and grammatical pronouns.

2. Language relationship and history

What historical evidence is provided by comparative linguistics?

A. The very fact of certain languages being related suggests that the corresponding ethnic entities had some sort of historical connection: either common origin or at least intimate cultural relationship (the latter for the case of transmitting a language to neighbours, conquered peoples, etc.). If there is an Indo-European language family, it means that there had to be an ancient linguistic community of speakers of Proto-Indo-European and there were historical conditions responsible for the common origin of different Indo-European descendant languages.

B. Loanwords in a language provide evidence for cultural connections between the borrowing and the lending language. If the loanwords denote trade articles, they suggest routes of ancient trade. If they are not names of merchandise, they prove that the two language communities were neighbours. Semitic loanwords in proto-IE, Indo-European loan-words in Kartvelian, absence of proto-Indo-European loanwords in Uralic, proto-Aryan (proto-Indo-Iranian) loans in Finno-Ugric are very important arguments helpful in resolving the problem of the Indo-European homeland (cf. Dolgopolsky 1975; 1987; 1988; 1993; the results coincide with those of Renfrew 1987).

C. The analysis of meaning of the words present in a proto-language (the common ancestor of languages in a family) casts some light on the way of life, geographical, historical and cultural parameters of the corresponding linguistic community. The traditional name of this field in linguistics is *palaeontology of language*, or *linguistic palaeontology* (cf. Pictet 1859–1863, Pisani 1938), or (in reference to Indo-European) *Indo-European antiquities* (Schrader 1901).

In dealing with linguistic paleontology we must be aware of dangers resulting from the unsteadiness of meanings of words, from the very fact that every language is adapted to the communicative requirements of the corresponding society and epoch, and therefore may lose words and meanings which were important in the remote past, but are not any more today. When feathers as an instrument of writing were replaced by metallic pens, the word for ‘feather’ was transmitted to ‘pen’ (French *plume*, German *Feder*, Russian *перо*, etc.). The Samoyeds of today use the ancient word for ‘arrow’ to denote the bullet. If the concepts and meanings which were important in the past, but are not any more today, the language often cannot afford the luxus of preserving special roots for such out-of-day concepts and meanings and replaces them by more economic (from the point of view of memory) derived or compound words and phrases. Thus, the ancient rich and complicated system

of kinship terms for relatives by marriage (important in a patriarchal society of clans and large families) is replaced in modern English by *-in-law*-constructions, and in French by *beau-/belle*-compounds. Instead of the Indo-European words *daiwēr ‘husband’s brother’, *syēuros ‘wife’s brother’ and *sweliyos ‘wife’s sister’s husband’ the English say indiscriminately *brother-in-law*, and the French use the courteous construct *beau-frère*. For the Indo-European *g̑lōus ‘husband’s sister’ and *yenatēr ‘husband’s brother’s wife’ the English say *sister-in-law*, and the French say *belle-sœur* (which is gallant for ladies, but useless for historical linguistics) [cf. Delamarre 1984, 38–43]. Sometimes ancient words are preserved, but precious semantic nuances have been lost. Thus, we can reconstruct scores of Nostratic words for cutting, and we may guess that there were semantic differences between them (different ways of cutting, directions of cutting, material of cutting, goals of cutting), but all these ‘subtle’ differences (subtle for the modern languages, but precious for historians and relevant for those ancient people) have been lost. In this respect we the linguists may envy the archaeologists who have direct information about the ancient tools and ways of cutting. *Verba volant, lapides manent.*

Nevertheless, comparative linguistics (making use of historical phonology, morphology, and typology of semantic changes) can provide important information or at least confirm the existing archaeological and anthropological information about ancient people, their life and culture.

3. Where and when?

Let us try to use linguistic palaeontology of the Nostratic macrofamily in order to determine the geographical and temporal parameters of the common Nostratic linguistic community.

3.1. Where?

The reconstructible Nostratic lexical stock (according to my comparative dictionary — in preparation) suggests subtropical climatic conditions in the original home of Nostratic. A Middle European or Siberian homeland is ruled out by words like *?ibrE ‘fig tree’, *SiwŋgE ‘leopard’, *?ū́r̥wŋ ‘leopard’ or ‘lion’, *ç̑i'bŋyŋ ‘hyena’, *?oř'ū and *gurHa (below #[36]) ‘antelope’, etc. Tropical countries are ruled out by words for *šūŋjU and *čaí,U,gŋ ‘snow’, *k̑iȓu,qā ‘ice’, *č̑a'Rŋ ‘hoarfrost’, etc.

[1] *?*ribrE* ‘fig tree’ > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic *?*ribar-* > Arabic *ribra-* ‘sycomore tree’ (pl. *ribar-*) ||| Cushitic: Oromo *abru* ‘fig tree’ ||| Chadic: Giziga *purof* ~ *zrof* ‘sycamore tree’; ? Hausa *bauré* (<**babre*), with *b* > *?*b*; ? Migama *bârá* (pl. *bârrî*) ‘figuier (rouge)’ ||| **Dravidian** **ir-~iç-* ‘fig (tree)’ > Tamil *iratti* ‘joined ovate-leaved fig’, ‘subserrate rhomboid-leaved fig, *Ficus gibbosa tuberculata*’, *iratakam* ‘joined ovate-leaved fig’, *içali* ‘white fig’, *içli* ‘tailed ovate-leaved fig’, *itti* ‘white fig, *Ficus infectoria*’, ‘stone fig, *Ficus talboti*’, Malayalam *itti* ‘waved leaved fig-tree, *Ficus venosa*’, Kodagu *itti* ‘*Ficus (gibbosa?)*’ (< -tt-*rt-).

[2] *?*ç'í'bñvñv* (or *?*ç'í'bñvñv*) ‘hyena’ > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic *?*šabu-* ~ *?*ša'bū-* id. > Post-Biblical Hebrew (Babylonian tradition) *çá'bōñ*, Biblical Hebrew (Masoretic trad.) *çá'bōñ* ‘hyena’ (popular etymology interpreting the word as a passive participle *צָבֹונָה* *çá'bōñh* ‘a died one’), pl. *çábōñ'-im*, Syriac *næp'-ā* (?- < - by dissimilation), Arabic *خَبُونَ* ~ *خَبْنَ*, Ge'ez *ወሰድ ፕሬና* ‘hyena’ ||| **Altaic**: Tungusic **cibpkä* > Ayan Ewenki *cipkaku* ‘wolf’ ||| **Dravidian** **civñvñki* ‘hyena, tiger-wolf’ or sim. > Kannada *sivangī* ‘tiger-wolf, hyena’, Telugu *civāgi*, *civvāgi*, *civvangi*, *sivāgi*, *sivanhi*, *sivvangi* ‘hyena’, as well as Tamil *civin̩ki* ‘Indian lynx, hunting leopard’, Malayalam *civin̩ni* ‘hunting leopard’ ◇ In Drav. there is coalescence of the etymon in question and Nostr. **SivñngE* ‘leopard’.

[3] *?*?r'ú'rñwñ* ‘large feline’ > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic *?*par'ay-* ‘lion’ or sim. > Hebrew *רַבֵּה אָרִיה* *par'ay* ‘lion’, Biblical Aramaic *par'ayē*, pl. *par,yāwā'tā*, Jewish Aramaic *אֲרִיָּא* *par'yā*, Syriac *par'yā* ‘lion’, as well as Ge'ez *parwē* ‘wild beast’ ||| Egyptian *rəw* ‘lion’ ||| East Chadic: Mubi *rórúwà* ‘lion’, Migama *ráñum* ‘lion’, Tumak *z̄r̄s̄w* ‘leopard’ ||| ?? Central Chadic: Musgu *àhíráw* id. | Lamang *árvárè* | Mandara *?uruvvñz̄rì*, Glavda *árñvara*, Gava *?úrvárá*, Dghwede *árñírè* ‘lion’ | Kotoko *rávəni* id. ||| **Altaic**: Turkic **irbi'* or **irbilç* ‘leopard’ > Old Turkic *irbiš~irbič* ‘leopard’, Tuva *irbiš* id.; Turkic → Class. Mong. *irbis*, Halha-Mongolian *irwes* ‘panther, leopard’; Mongolic → Altay *irbis* ‘leopard’ ||| **Dravidian** **uṛuv-* ‘tiger’ > Tamil *uṛuvai*, Telugu *duvvu*, Kolami *duv*, qū, Gondi *qū*, qūal ‘tiger’, *quwāl*, *quwwal* ‘panther’.

[4] *Siw^ŋgE ‘leopard’ > **Indo-European** *sing^ho- ‘leopard’ or ‘lion’ > Armenian տիզ, պոզ ‘leopard’ || Old Indian śimha-ḥ ‘lion’ || Tocharian A śiśäk, B śeçake ‘lion’ || **Hamito-Semitic**: East Cushitic *zagum ‘leopard’ > Tambaro zəgu’mā, Sidamo dagūn-čō ||| Chadic: Hausa zákkī, Gwandara žák^ui || Kotoko zévəni || Mokilko sùwwú, Kwang sèmkí, sémgí id. || **Altaic**: Tungusic *sibi^ge ‘large beast of prey’ > Tungir Ewenki siwig̃ ~ hiwig̃ ‘wolf’, Ayan Ewenki siwiys ‘bear’, Ola Lamut həwyō ~ həwỹ, Okhotsk Lamut həwəỹ id., Orochi sīwi (name of a mythical dog) || **Dravidian** *civ^ŋki ‘leopard’ and sim. > Tamil cīviṇki ‘Indian lynx, hunting leopard’, Malayalam cīviṇṇi ‘hunting leopard’, Kannada sīvaṅgi ‘tiger-wolf, hyena’, Telugu cīvāgi, cīvvāgi, cīvvāṅgi, sīvāgi, sīvaṇhi, sīvvāṅgi ‘hyena’ ◇ In Dravidian there is coalescence of the etymon in question and Nostr. *cī^gi^bṇvṇ (or *cī^gi^bṇvṇ) ‘hyena’

[5] *rōr^u ‘antelope (male), deer’ > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic *parway- > Akkadian arwium ‘gazelle (male)’, Arabic أَرْوَى purwiyyat- (pl. أَرْوَى) ‘mountain goat’, Ge’ez አርዱ የርዱ ‘beast, animal’ (merger of two roots) ||| Cushitic: Dahalo rārōlē ‘eland’ || **Altaic**: Mongolic: Class. Mong. oruŋgu, Halha-Mongolian, Buryat orongo ‘a kind of small dark antelope with long flat horns’ ||| Tungusic *oron ‘reindeer’ > Ewenki oron, Lamut orən, Negidal oyon, Orochi oro, Ude oro~olo, Ulcha oro(n-), Nanay orō ‘domestic reindeer’, Manchu oron buχu id. || **Dravidian** *Uṛ^u-ay- ‘deer’ > Tamil ur^uay, Tulu ur^u, ule ‘deer’, Parji uṛup ‘spotted deer’.

[6] *maŋ^gṇ or *maN₁i,^gṇ ‘monkey’ > **Hamito-Semitic**: East Chadic: Mubi móŋgò ‘small black monkey’ || **Altaic**: Tungusic *moño > Manchu monio moño ‘(a kind of) yellowish monkey with a short tail’, Sibe-Manchu мəń(u), Northern Manchu мəńu ‘monkey’ || **Dravidian** *maŋk- ‘monkey’ > Malayalam morṇa, Kannada maṇga, Koraga maŋgi ‘monkey’, Tulu maṇge id., ‘ape’ ◇ The origin of English *monkey* and of the Romance word *monna (> Spanish, Portuguese *mona*, -o ‘monkey’, Italian *monna*, French *mone* ‘female monkey’) remains rather obscure. They may be loanwords of unknown origin. Nothing is known about their possible connection with Nostr. *maŋ^gṇ ‘monkey’.

[7] *šūŋU ‘snow’ > **Indo-European** *sneɪgʷʰ- ‘to snow’, *snigʷʰ-. *snoigʷʰ- n. ‘snow’ > Old Indian *snēha- > Prakrit sīnēha- ‘snow’, Shugnani žəniž id., Avestan snaēža- ‘to snow’ || Greek νύφη (accus.) ‘snow’, νεύφει ‘it snows’ || Latin nix (gen. nivis) ‘snow’, nivit ‘it is snowing’ || Middle Irish snecht(a)e ‘snow’ (with a *t-suffix like in Greek νιψετός ‘falling snow, snowstorm’), Irish sneachta, Welsh nyf ‘snow’, nyfið ‘to snow’ || Old High German, Anglo-Saxon snīwan ‘to snow’, Old Norse snýr ‘it snows’, Gothic snaiws, Anglo-Saxon snāw, Old High German snēo, English snow, German Schnee, Danish sne, Swedish snö ‘snow’ || Lithuanian sniēgas, Latvian sniegs, Prussian snaygis ‘snow’ | Slavic *sněgъ id. > Old Church Slavonic СНЕГЪ sněgъ, Russian снег, Polish śnieg, Czech sníh, Croatian sniēg, Serb снēг, Bulgarian сняг ¶ The prehistory of the word may be represented as follows: *šūŋU > *šiŋU > *šingU > *Snigu > IE *sneigʷʰ- (for details of the vowel changes see Dolgopolsky 1995, 17-22) || **Uralic**: Finno-Ugric *šūŋe ‘wet snow’ > Finnish hyy ‘ice, melting snow’ | proto-Lappish *sōvē ‘snow with ice and water’ > Norwegian Lapp suovve ‘wet snow’ || **Altaic**: Tungusic *sūŋü ‘hoarfrost, snow’ > Ewenki sīŋi-kss id., sīŋi-lgən ‘snow’, Nanay sungu ‘hoarfrost’, Classical Manchu սա(η)- ‘to become covered with hoarfrost’ ||| Turkic *səŋ (or *sän) ‘ice floe, block of ice’ > Qazaq, Nogay səŋ id., Qaraqalpaq səŋ ‘ice, ice floe’ (‘лед, льдина’) ||| Mongolic *söŋ > Class. Mong. söŋ, Halha-Mongolian сөнг söŋ, Kalmuck söŋ ‘small pieces of ice in a river’ ||| Japanese śimo ‘hoarfrost, frost’ ||? **Hamito-Semitic**: Egyptian šny.t, šnṣ ‘haily weather’.

[8] *čaí_U_g∇ ‘snow’ or ‘hoar-frost’ > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic *'θalag- ‘snow’ > Hebrew גָּלַג 'šelag, Aramaic גָּלָג tə'lag, status emphaticus גָּלָגָה tal'gā, Syriac st. emph. ﴿תָּלָגְאָה﴾ tal'g-ā, Arabic جَلْثَانِجَ -θalğ-, Akkadian šalg- u ‘snow’ ||? Berber: Kabyle a-salu, pl. i-sula ‘couche de neige’ || **Uralic**: Finno-Ugric *°č'aí'_lγ∇ > proto-Vogul *šaí- ‘hoar-frost’ > Southern Vogul šaí, šaí, Western and Eastern Vogul šaí, Northern Vogul soí || **Altaic** *c'aíka > Turkic *tɔ́i ‘ice’ > Old Turkic toš ‘glacier in the mountains’, Altay, Tuba, Qumanda toš, Tuva doš, Tofalar dž̥š ‘ice’, Volga Tatar tuš ‘water over the ice of rivers\lakes (наледь)’, Yakut tohō- ‘to break ice in a

river' ||| Tungusic *jalka 'fine snow' > Negidal jalka id., jalka- 'to snow' (of fine snow).

[9] ?? *չָרָאֵרְבַּן 'hoar-frost', (>) 'frozen soil' > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic *חָרֶב > Arabic ظَرْبٌ ظُرْبٌ 'frozen earth, frozen mud' ||| **Kartvelian**: *չָחֲרָבְּ- > Tush Georgian չհար-i 'hoarfrost' ||| **Altaic**: Mongolic *ئار > Class. Mong. ئار, Halha, Kalmuck -tsap 'layer of frost on the surface of snow; hard crust on snow' ||| Turkic: Teleut چارتىم id.

[10] *կիրսա 'ice, hoarfrost; to freeze' > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic *קָרְבַּן- 'ice' > Biblical Hebrew קָרְבַּן, קָרָה 'ice, frost', Syriac կարհ-ā, Akkadian կարշ-ս 'ice', Akkadian ܟܼܾܻ (inf. կարܾܻ) 'freeze' ||| ? Berber *ܟܼܾܻ > Rif ڭڭاررا 'gréle' ||| ? East Cushitic: Oromo қорра 'cold, coldness', қорра 'to freeze, make cold', Sidamo қорра 'frost, hoarfrost, severe cold', қорра 'to be\feel cold, freeze', Darasa қօrra 'frost' ¶¶ The Berber and Egyptian roots may alternatively go back to Nostr. *Կարհ- 'ice, hoarfrost' ||| **Kartvelian**: Lechkhumuri Georgian կրுշ-վա n. 'cold' ('Kälte') ||| **Indo-European** *kerə-, *kernos 'ice crust, snow crust, hoarfrost' > Armenian սա՞ր (gen. սա՞րին) 'ice' ||| Germanic (< *kernos): Old Norse hjarn 'snow crust', Old High German hornunc 'February' (← *month of ice\snow-crust') || proto-Slavic *sérnъ (gen. sernà) (< *kernos) > Russian Church Slavonic срѣнъ, Old Russian серенъ, Polish śron ~ śrzon 'hoarfrost', Bulgarian 'съренъ 'snow that has frozen together', Czech střín, stříní 'ice on branches of trees', Russian (dial.) се'рѣн, Slovene srén, Russian, Ukrainian 'съренъ 'frozen hard snow' | Latvian sērns id. (< *kernos); with other derivational suffixes: Lithuanian šeršnas, Latvian sērksnis, sērsna 'hoarfrost' ||| **Uralic**: [1] Finno-Ugric *kirv > Ob-Ugric *kîr > proto-Ostyak *kîr 'snow-crust' > Eastern Ostyak kîr, Northern Ostyak ker id. ||| [2] with a suffix: Finno-Ugric *kirte ~ *kerte 'snow-crust, frozen soil' > Finnish kirsi (obl. cases kirte-) 'frost on the ground, ice-crust', kersi 'thin snow-crust', Estonian kirs 'ice layer' | Highland Cheremis kärt 'snow-crust' ||| East. Ostyak kârdäm ~ kärtäm 'thin snow-crust' ||| **Altaic** *k'irv 'snow, hoarfrost': Turkic *كِەرە-گۇ 'hoarfrost' > Old Turkic qırāğǔ, Chagatay qıraw 'hoarfrost that falls from the sky', Xwarazmi Turkic qırayu, Old Qipchaq qırawǔ,

Cuman *kirov*, Turkish *kırağú*, Türkmen *girav*, Azeri *girov*, Yakut *kiria*, Tuva *χırā* ‘hoarfrost’; another derivative: Turkish *kirc̄* ‘abundant hoarfrost’, Gagauz *qırč* ‘hoarfrost, white frost’ ||| ? Mongolic **kira-guₙ* ‘hoarfrost’ > Middle Mongolian *kiraŋu*, Class. Mongolian *kiragu(n)*, Halha *хярүү*, Ordos *kirū*, Buryat *хюрүү*, Dongxiang *qireu*, Kalmuck *кирү* *kirü* ‘hoarfrost’, Mongolic **kira-maq* ‘fine snow, first snow’ > Class. Mongolian *kiramag*, Halha *хярмаг*, Buryat *хирмаг* ~ *хярмаг* id., Kalmuck *kirmäg* id., ‘newly-fallen snow’.

If the Nostratic ancient homeland is in a subtropical region, we face a problem of choice: was it in Southern Europe or in the Southwestern Asia? There are two words suggesting an answer: **Sah_{i,b}* ‘saline earth, desert’ and **tälwA* (or **talwä*) ‘cold season, rain’.

[11] **Sah_{i,b}* ‘saline earth, desert’ > **Drauidian** **cava* ‘brackish\saline earth’ > Tamil *cavat̄u* ‘earth impregnated with soda, alcaline soil, sediment; fuller’s earth’, Tulu *cavuḷb*, *cavuḷu* ‘brackish, saline’, Telugu *cavḍu* ‘fuller’s earth’ || | **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic *^o*šahb-* (or **sahb-*) > Arabic *sahb-* ‘desert, desert with saline earth’ ||| East Cushitic **zib-* ‘desert’ > Saho *dib-o*, Afar *dub-u*, Benadir Somali *dib-ad*, Rendille *yip* id. || | **Altaic**: Turkic **sāy* ‘stony desert’ > Old Turkic *sāy* id., Chaghatai (15th c.) *say* ‘a river that flows in the winter and is dry in summer’ || | **Uralic** **śisoywa* ‘clay’ [contamination with Nostr. **śab?* ‘soil, clay’] > Ter Lapp *čūjvε*, Kildin Lapp *čuŋya* ‘Ton, Lehm’ | Permian **śoy* ‘clay’ > Ziryene *сёй* *śoy*, Upper Sisola Ziryene *śoy*, Yazvian *'śuy*, Votyak *сюй* *śuj* ||| Samoyedic: Taz Sölqup *sö* ‘earth, soil; clay’, Koibal *se* ‘Ton’.

[12] **tälwA* or **talwä* ‘cold season, rain’ > **Indo-European** **del-* ‘rain, dew’ > Armenian *teł* ‘heavy rain’, *tełam*, -em, -um ‘to cause to rain heavily, open the windows of heaven’ || Middle Irish *delt* ‘dew’, Breton *delt* ‘moist’ || | **Uralic** **tälwä* ‘winter’ > Finnish *talvi*, Estonian *talv* | proto-Lappish **tälvē* > Norwegian Lapp *dal've* | Erzya-Mordvin *теле* *telē*, Moksha-Mordvin *тяла* *talə* | Highland Cheremis *tel*, Eastern Cheremis *telə* | Ziryene *təv*, Yazvian *tōl* ‘winter’ ||| Ob-Ugric **tēl(a)v* ‘winter’ > Southern Vogul *tāl* ‘winter’, Eastern Vogul *tōl* id., *tēli* ‘in

winter'; proto-Ostyak *tĕləy 'winter' > Vakh Ostyak tĕləy | Hungarian télen | id. || ? **Altaic:** Turkic *tolu 'hail' > Turkish dölu, etc.

These two Nostr. words suggest Southwestern Asia as a homeland. Indeed, saline earth is very typical in Southwestern Asia, but not in Southern Europe. The equation 'winter' = 'rain' is more natural in the Near East (where rain is in winter only, and winter is characterized by rain) than in Southern Europe.

The Nostr. vocabulary shows that the speakers of the Nostr. parent language were by no means a maritime people. We find no words for boats or navigating. There is even no real word for the sea. Of course, there is a word *yam ∇ , which apparently means 'sea' in Semitic and some Samoyedic languages. But what kind of a 'sea' is this? The Hebrew word ים yām is usually translated as 'sea', but is applied not only to the Mediterranean, but also to the 'sea' of Galilee and to the Dead Sea (Hebrew yam ham'melah 'Salty Sea'), which from the modern point of view are lakes. In the Samoyedic languages the word denoted a large river (the Ob), and only in the languages and dialects of those who reached the Arctic ocean (namely Nganasan and Tundra Nenets) the word denotes the sea. Those who in the remote past were not maritime people did not distinguish the sea from other large water bodies.

[13] *yam ∇ 'water body' ('sea, lake' > 'pond'), 'water' > **Hamito-Semitic:** Semitic *yamm- 'sea' (actually 'large water-body') > Hebrew ים yām (pl. ימים yam'mim) 'sea', Phoenician, Ugaritic ȝm, Aramaic, Syriac ȝam'mā, Arabic ȝamm- 'sea'; Semitic > Egyptian (from the 18th Dynasty) ȝm 'sea' ||| ?? Berber *-ȝam- 'water' (with the masc. article *ȝa- and the pl. ending *-ȝān: *ȝa-ȝam-ȝān > *ȝām-an pl. 'water') > Twareg ȝām-an, Kabyle aman, etc. ||| Chadic *ȝam- 'water' > Tera ȝim, Ga'anda ȝēma, Chibak ȝimi, Higi ȝiemi, etc. || **Uralic:** Samoyedic *ȝäm 'large water body (sea, large river)' > Nganasan 'дэъяма' žama 'sea', Tundra Nenets jam? 'sea, large river', Forest Nenets ȝeä:m 'large river'.

The words for 'sea' in the descendant languages go back to Nostr. words for 'water body'. The IE word *mori 'sea' is from Nostr. *moRE 'water body'. In Egyptian the same root means 'pool', and the speakers of Megrelian (a Kartvelian language, very near to the Black Sea) use this word for 'lake'.

[14] *moRE 'water body' > **Indo-Eur.** *mor-, *mori / *m̥ri 'sea' > Latin mare 'sea' || Celtic *mori- 'sea' > Old Irish muir (gen. mōra), Welsh

mor || Germanic: Gothic *marei*, Old High German *marī*, Old Norse *mar-r* (gen, *mar-ar*) ‘sea, lake’ || Prussian *mary*, Latvian *mare* ‘the Curonian Lagoon (Kurisches Haff)’, Lithuanian pl. *mārės* (gen. *mārios*) id., ‘sea’; Baltic → Finnish, Estonian *meri* ‘sea’ | Slavic **moře* ‘sea’ > Old Church Slavonic **MOPH** *morje*, Bulgarian *mo'pe*, Serbo-Croatian *mōre*, Czech *moře*, Slovak *more*, Polish *morze*, Russian 'mope || **Ham.-Sem.:** Egyptian *mr* ‘pool, channel’, Demotic Egyptian *mr* ‘haven, land on the seashore’, *mry.t* ‘haven’ ||| Central Chadic: Nzangi *mirūn* ‘river’ || **Kartu.** *^o*mojær-* > Zan **mojär-ey* > Megrelian *mere* ‘lake’ || **Altaic:** Mongolic **mören* ‘large river, lake, sea’ > Middle Mongolian *mören* ‘large river, stream of water’, gen. *mörenü* ‘of the sea, of a large river’, Class. Mong. *mören*, Halha *məpən* ‘large river or lake’, Kalmuck *moran* ‘river (falling into a sea)’, Ordos *mörön*, Monguor *murōn*, Dagur *mür(ù)* ‘river’.

Ancient speakers of the Nostratic parent language did not know geography and had no maps, they were not a maritime people, therefore they did not distinguish between the sea and other relatively large water bodies. This is also an argument for their localization in Southwestern Asia rather than in peninsular Southern Europe (where an intimate acquaintance with the sea was inevitable).

All this favours the hypothesis of Southwestern Asia (rather than Southern Europe) as the original Nostratic territory.

3.2. When?

By saying ‘When?’ we do not mean astronomical time (millennia), but rather cultural time (the Neolithic, Mesolithic or Palaeolithic epochs).

3.2.1. Neolithic? Agriculture, husbandry, pottery?

In contrast to the Proto-Indo-European vocabulary, very rich in terms of agriculture, husbandry and pottery (hence pointing to a Neolithic dating of the Indo-European parent language), the Nostratic vocabulary (as reflected in the extant two thousand etymological entries) has no words that can be unequivocally connected with Neolithic culture.

It has no words for sowing or ploughing, but has words for harvesting (in defiance of the famous maxim).

[15] *qaRp̪p̪V ‘to harvest’ (‘cereal’) > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic *✓χrp ‘to pluck, harvest’ > Arabic خرف✓χrf ‘to pluck and gather (fruit)’; Semitic *χurup-, *χarp- ‘autumn and winter’ (← *‘harvest-time’) > Old South Arabian χrf ‘autumn, autumn crops’, Akkadian χarpū ‘early autumn’, Biblical Hebrew חָרֵב ḥorəv ‘winter’, Arabic خرفχuruf- ‘tempus quo ad autumnum exeunt’, χarīf- ‘autumn’ ||| **Indo-European** *χalorP- > Hittite harpas, harpiyas ‘feast of harvest’ (‘Erntefeste’) ||| **Altaic**: Turkic *arpa ‘barley’ > Old Turkic arpa, Turkisharpa, etc. ||| Mongolic *arbay ‘barley’ > Middle Mongolian, Classical Mong. arbay, Halha arvay id. ||| Manchu arfa ‘oats, barley’.

[16] *zükV or *zukE ‘edible cereals, harvest (of wild plants?)’ > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic *✓zkw > Arabic ✓zkw ‘to grow’ (of a plant) ||| ? Egyptian sk3 ‘to plough, cultivate a field’, sk3 (noun) ‘harvest of a field’ ||| **Uralic**: Finno-Ugric *sükšV ‘autumn’ > Finnish syksy, syys id., Estonian sügis, sügise- ; proto-Lappish *čékčz id. > Norwegian Lapp čákččá | Erzya-Mordvin сёксъ šokš, Moksha-Mordvin сёксе šokšä, ‘autumn’ | Lowland Cheremis 'шыже šyže, Highland Cheremis шәйкәи šežä id. | Votyak сыйзыыл sižt̄l id. || Ob-Ugric *θü̚rəs id. > Southern Vogul tüks, Vakh Ostyak sőyəs id. | Hungarian ősz id.

Nostratic had words for cereals (*gaLV, *χäntV, etc):

[17] *gaLV ‘cereals’ > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic: Arabic ڙالات-‘cereals’ ||| **Kartvelian**: Georgian ყალვა ‘zu mähendes reifes Korn’, possibly also ყალა ‘reicher Ertrag des Feldes’ ||| **Indo-European** *xelV_K- > Hittite halki- ‘grain, corn, grain-crop’ ||| Greek γλιξ ‘spelt’ → Latin (h)alica id.

[18] *χäntV ‘kernel, grain’ > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic *ħint-at- (~ *ħunṭ-at-?) ‘wheat’ > Hebrew חִטְּתָא ḥit̄tā, Ugaritic ḥt̄t, Old Aramaic ḥt̄h, Imperial Aramaic ḥnṭ? ~ ḥt̄h, Jewish Aramaic ḥint̄a'ṭā ~ ḥitt̄a'ṭā, Syriac ḥeṭṭatā, Arabic حَنْتَة ḥintat-, Akkadian uṭṭatu ‘wheat’ ||| Cushitic: Somali háḍuḍ ‘corn, millet’, Iraqw, Gorowa fayiti?i (pl. fayito?o) ‘maize’ ||| **Indo-European** *χet(e)n- (metathesis from Nostr. *χäntV) >

Hittite *hattar* ‘(a kind of) cereal’ ||| Narrow Indo-European *et(e)n- ‘kernel, grain’ > Middle Irish *eitne* ‘kernel’, Scottish Gaelic *eite* ‘unhusked ear of corn’, *eitean* ‘kernel, grain’ ||| Greek ἔτνος ‘a thick soup of pulse, pea-soup’ || | **Dravidian** *aṇṭi ‘kernel’ > Malayalam *aṇṭi* ‘kernel, stone of mango, etc., nut’, Tamil *aṇṭi-kkottai* ‘cashew-nut’, Kodagu *maṇge aṇḍi* ‘mango stone’.

Unfortunately, the words for cereals do not help us to understand if those cereals were wild or domesticated. Therefore our conclusion about the lack of agriculture is based on a negative argument only: no words for specifically agricultural activities (sowing, ploughing, harrowing, etc.).

We face a similar difficulty in trying to find out whether the speakers of Nostratic were acquainted with husbandry. The words for bovines, sheep, goat and swine are not helpful because they might have denoted both wild and domesticated animals. But there is a more sophisticated way of solving the problem: the criterion of milk as food. Milk as food exists only in societies with husbandry. But in Nostratic we know of no word for milk as food or for milking a female animal. The words of the descendant languages for ‘milk’ and ‘milking’ go back to words with a different meaning. For instance, the Indo-European verb *meǵ- ‘to milk’ (whence English *milk*) goes back to Nostr. *mälge ‘breast, female breast’. The Hamito-Semitic root for ‘milk, to milk’ (Hebrew *ḥalab*, Arabic *ḥalab-* ‘milk’, the South Cushitic word for ‘milk’) go back to Nostr. *ḥalb▽ ‘white’. Finnish *maito* ‘milk’ is traced back to the Nostr. word for ‘tasty beverage’.

[19] *mälge ‘breast, female breast’ > **Indo-Eur.** *meǵ- ‘to milk’ > Greek ἄμελγω ‘I milk’ ||| Albanian *mjel*, *miel* id. ||| Latin *mulgē-re* ‘to milk’ ||| Middle Irish *b̄ligim* ‘I milk’, perfect *do-om-malg* ||| Old High German *melchan*, German *melken*, Anglo-Saxon *melcan* ‘to milk’; noun: Gothic *miluks*, Old North *mjǫlk*, Old High German *miluh* > German *Milch*, Anglo-Saxon *meolc*, *mioluc* > English *milk*; Germanic → Slavic *melko ‘milk’ > Old Church Slavonic *mlěko*, Polish *mleko*, Russian *молоко* ‘milk’ ||| Lithuanian *mélžu* / *mīlžti* ‘to milk’ | Slavic: Russian Church Slavonic *mъlzu* / *mlěšti* ‘to milk’; Slavic *melzivo ‘colostrum’ > Russian *м'лозиво*, Slovak *mlězivo*, etc. ||| Tocharian: A *māklune* ‘milking’ (nomen actionis), A *malke*, B *malk-wer* ‘milk’ || | **Ham.-Sem.:** Semitic *√mlg > Arabic *جَلَجَلَ* √mlg ‘to suck’ ||| Egyptian *mnʒ* ‘female

breast, breast' ||| Cushitic: Somali *māl*- 'to milk' || | **Uralic:** Finno-Ugric *mäl̥rə 'breast' > Finnish *mälvä*, Estonian *mälv* 'breast of a bird\fowl' | Norwegian Lappish *mielgå* 'breast\chest of an animal' | Moksha-Mordvin *mätkä* 'breast' | Highland Cheremis *me1* id. | Votyak *m31* id. || Ob-Ugric *mēyəl 'breast' > proto-Vogul *māzəl > Konda Vogul *möz1*, *māz1*; Vakh Ostyak *möyəl*, Teryugan Ostyak *māyəf* id. | Hungarian *mell* 'chest, breast, bosom' ||| Tundra Yukagir *mełut* 'breast'.

[20] *ḥalb ∇ (or *χalb ∇) 'white' > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. *ḥa'lab- 'milk' > Biblical Hebrew בָּלְבָד ḥā'lāb id., Middle Hebrew בָּלְבָד ḥā'lāb id., 'white (of an egg)', Punic, Ugaritic, Official Aramaic ḥlb, Aramaic, Syriac ḥal(ə)'b-ā, Arabic حَلْبَ halab- 'milk', Ge'ez ḥalab 'sour milk'; derivatives: Arabic ḥalib- 'milk', Ge'ez ḥalib, Tigre, Tigray ḥalib 'milk, curds', Sem. *✓ḥlb 'to milk' > Middle Hebrew, Aram., Syriac, Arabic ✓ḥlb id.; West Sem. → New Assyrian Akkadian 𒄑lpu 'milk' ||| South Cush.: Iraqw ՚ilwa, ՚ilwā~ՌԱԼՎԱ, Burunge, Alagwa ՚ilba, Gorowa սլուա, Asa ՚iba 'milk' || East Cush.: Somali ḥalab-lā 'Melchsechter' (with the component lā 'having') ¶¶ The Sem. words *ḥa'lab- and *ḥa'līb- have a morphological structure typical of adjectives (the patterns *Ca'CaC- and *Ca'CīC-). This fact suggests an original meaning of adjective (most probably 'white') || **Indo-Eur.** *h'alelbhō- 'white' > Narrow Indo-Eur. *albhō- id. > Latin *albus*, Umbrian *alf-* id. || Gaulish *albo-* id. || Greek [Hesychius] acc. pl. ἄλφούς id., ἄλφος 'whiteness, white leprosy' || Germanic *alþ-it, *alþ-ut- 'swan' > Old High German *albiz*, *elbiz*, Anglo-Saxon ælbītu, ielfetū, Old Norse *elptr*, q1pt || Slavic *ǫlbqđь ~ *ělbędь 'swan' > Church Slavonic лєб€дь lebedь, Bulgarian лебед, Serbo-Croatian lǎbđd, Russian 'лебедь, (dial.) 'лебядь, Polish łabędż, Czech labut' ||| ? Hittite alpas 'cloud' || | **Drau.** *all- 'clear' (of liquids) > Kurukh all-nā 'to become clear' (of liquids left undisturbed), Malto ále id. ◇ If Hittite alpas belongs here, the reconstruction is *ḥalb ∇ , otherwise it is *ḥχalb ∇ .

[21] *may̥ $\hat{\zeta}\nabla$ 'tasty beverage' > **Uralic:** Finno-Ugric *may̥ $\hat{\zeta}\nabla$ 'sap of trees' > Finnish *maito* 'milk', Finnish (dial.) *majto* 'birch sap', Estonian (dial.) *mait* 'cream (Sahne)' | Votyak (dial.) *m31* 'tree honey, tree sap' ||

Altaic: Turkic *bal ‘honey’ > Old Turkic *bał*, etc. || | **Kartvelian** *mžv̥ > Laz *mža* ‘milk, buttermilk’ || | **Hamito-Semitic:** East Cushitic: Sidamo *mal*(?)- ‘sweet’, Saho, Eastern Afar *malāb*, Somali *malab*, Hadiya *marabō*, Sidamo *malawō* ‘honey’ || | **Indo-European** *mel-i-(t) / *mel-n- ‘honey’ > Armenian *meṛt* || Greek μέλι (gen. μέλιτ-ος) || Albanian *mjal*, *mjaltë* (< *melit-*) || Latin *mēl*, gen. *mēll-is* (< **mel-n-*) || Old Irish *miil* (< **melī*), gen. *mēla* || Gothic *miliþ* id. ||| Hittite *milit-* ‘honey’.

Through the looking-glass of the vocabulary we can see that the speakers of the Nostratic parent language were hunters and gatherers without agriculture and husbandry.

Did they know pottery? There are many Nostratic words that in the descendant languages are names of vessels. But what is conspicuous is that practically all of them denote baskets too. When used as verbs, they mean 'to plait, wattle, wicker'. In addition, many of them are used to denote walls and fences (< 'wickerwork'). These words reflect the epoch of plaiting vessels, which only later developed into earthenware.

Church Slavonic *котъсъ* ‘cage’, Macedonian Slavic *котек*, Bulgarian ‘*коce*’ ‘fishweir’, Serbo-Croatian *kotac* id., ‘partition in a shed’, Old Polish *kociec* ‘enclosure for livestock\fowl’, Russian (dial.) *ко'тец* ‘fish-trap (made of cane\brushwood), *кот'цы* ‘fishweir, fishing net’, Ukrainian *ко'тесь* ‘round fishweir’; Slavic **котъ*, **котъсъ* ‘small building’ (> Old Czech *kot*, *kót* ‘stall, shop [in the market]’, Church Slavonic *котъсъ* ‘small room’, etc.) represents a contamination of the root in question and Nostr. **Kot̥ta* ‘fence, wall, hut, house’ || Anglo-Saxon *heden* ‘cooking vessels’ || Latin *catīnus* ‘dip dish\bowl’ ¶ IE *-t- instead of the phonetically regular *-d̥- is due to the incompatibility law ruling out combinations of tenues and mediae aspiratae; in some cases contamination with **Kot̥ta* ‘mud-hut, house’ may have played a role as well || ? **Altaic**: Turkic **kat-* ‘to weave, plait, twist (wool into thread)’ (shift of fortis < ***k'at-?*) > Tofalar *qat̥-* ‘to weave, plait’, Tuva *qat-* ‘to add, weave, twist’ || **Dravidian** [1] **kaṭṭ-*, **kaṭ-* ‘to tie, build’ > Tamil, Telugu *kaṭṭu*, Malayalam *keṭṭuka*, Kota, Kolami, Gadba *kaṭ-*, Toda *koṭ-*, Kodagu *kaṭṭ-*, Tulu *kaṭṭuni*, Naikri, Parji *kaṭṭ-*, Chanda Naiki *kaṭ-/kaṭṭ-* id., Kannada *kaṭṭu* ‘to bind, tie, dam’, Gondi *kaṭṭā* ‘a dam in the river for catching fish’, Konda *kaṭa* ‘bundle (of hay)’, Kui *kāṭ-* ‘to fix, fasten’, Malto *gaṭa* ‘rope, cord’; [2] (derived from the prec.?) **kaṭṭī* or **kattī* ‘mat, mat-wall’ > Gondi *kaṭṭī* ‘palmleaf mat’, *katti(:*) & *ketti* ‘mat’, Konda *katī* ‘wall’, Kuwi *katti* ‘mat-wall’ & *katī* ‘wall’.

[23] *קֹסֶכֶת 'basket' > **Ham.-Sem.**: Semitic *'kaṣas- 'vessel' > Bibl. Hebrew קֹס kōs, Samaritan Hebrew kuwāṣ, Ugaritic, Phoenician, Official Aramaic, Hatra kṣ, Phoenician ḳṣ (ḳ < *k...?), Jewish Aramaic קְשַׁתְּ kā'sā, Syriac ܩܲܵܶ kās / ܩܲܵܶ ܰܵܶ kā's-ā, Mandaic kasa 'drinking-bowl, cup', Arabic كَسْ kāṣ- '[wine]-cup', Akkadian kāṣu 'drinking-bowl' ||| Egyptian κε 'jug of metal', Late Egyptian κζ 'vessel of silver' ||| Berber *k'ū'ss- 'pot, drinking vessel' > Twareg, Ghat akus (pl. ikassən), Ghadamsi tukas (pl. takassən) 'pot, drinking vessel' ||| Central Cushitic: Khamir kūskūsā (pl. kūskūs) 'Wasserkrug'; Agaw → Ethiosemitic: Ge'ez κወስቂስ 'pitcher, pot', Tigray κወስቂስቲ 'phial of glass or metal', Amharic κወስቂስቲ 'water jug' || **Kartvelian**: [1] Georgian kvacia 'small

earthen pot'; [2] Kartvelian **κεc-* 'earthen vessel' > Georgian *ქეci*, Megrelian *ქici* ~ *ქეci* 'tönerne Backpfannen', Laz *ქic-* 'pan of stone', Svan *ქec* 'grand pot (creusé dans la terre)' || **Indo-European** **kʷas-yo-*, **kʷas-lo-* 'wicker basket, wickerwork', **kʷēsyā* 'vessel': [1] **kʷas-yo-*, **kʷas-lo-* 'wicker basket' > Latin *quālum* (*quallus*) id. (< **kʷaslo-*m, as can be seen from the diminutive *quāsillus*, -um) || Slavic **košь* (< **kʷasyos*) 'basket' > Old Church Slavonic, Old Russian *кошь* *кошь*, Bulgarian, Russian (dial.) *кош*, Serbo-Croatian *kōš*, Slovene *kōš*, Czech *koš*, Slovak *kōš*, Polish *kosz*, Ukrainian *кіш* 'basket', proto-Slavic **košelъ*, **košela*, **košelъ* 'wickerwork' > Low Lusatian *kōšela* 'wattle-fence', Polish *koszela*, Old Russian *košelъ* 'wicker basket', Russian *ко'шель* id., 'small sack' |||| [2] IE **kʷēsiā* 'vessel' > proto-Slavic **čaša* 'cup' > Old Church Slavonic, Old Russian *čaša*, Russian 'чаша' 'cup, bowl', Bulgarian 'чаша' 'a glass', Serbo-Croatian *čaša* 'bowl', Slovene *čáša* 'cup, a glass', Polish *czasza*, Old Czech *čieše*, Czech *číše* 'bowl' || **Uralic**: Finno-Ugric **koća* 'basket (made of birch bark), vessel' > Finnish (dial.) *kosio*, *kalakosio* 'großer Fischkorb aus Birkenrinde' (*kalä* 'fish'), Aunis Karelian *kojza*, *kozja* 'kleiner Rindenkorb mit Henkel aus Birkenrinde' || Norwegian Lapp *guōšše* 'Rindenkorb', Kola Lapp *kīšš'ē* ~ *kūšš'* ~ *kuōšš'* 'Tragekorb aus Birkenrinde' || Moksha-Mordvin *kuću*, *koću* 'spoon' || Ob-Ugric **kōć-* > Northern and Eastern Vogul *sān-χos*', Konda Vogul *sānχos* 'small basket of birch bark' (*sān* 'a vessel of birch bark'); Teryugan Ostyak *kōfi*, *kōťak* 'Trinkgefäß aus Birkenrinde', Vasyugan Ostyak *kōćək* 'Rindenschachtel von der Form einer Schöpfkelle, die in die Wiege gestellt wird' || **Altaic**: Tungusic **xaču-xan* 'kettle, basket' > Orochi *xačuan*, Ulcha *xačoa(n-)*, Orok *xačuy(a(n-)*, Nanay *xačoxā* 'kettle', Kur-Urmi Nanay *xačoxoā* ~ *xačā* id., 'basket of birch bark', Classical Manchu *xačuxan* *mucen* 'three-legged kettle' || **Drauidian** **ku|oc-a-* (+ suffix) 'potter' > Tamil *kuyam* (/*kucam-* as the first member of compound words) 'potter caste', *kuyavan* ~ *kucavan* 'potter', Malayalam *kuyavan* ~ *kuśavan* id., Tamil f. *kuyatti* ~ *kucatti*, Malayalam f. *kuyatti* 'potter (woman)', Tamil *kō* 'potter', Kannada *kōva*, *kuvara*, Tulu *kisave* id.

[24] ***p̥pat'a** 'basket, box' > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic *^optn (?*pa'tan-) > Akkadian pitnu 'box' || **Indo-European** *pod- > Narrow IE *pod- 'box, vessel, pot' > ? Old Indian pālla 'container for corn' || Old High German vazz 'box, container', Old Saxon, Old Norse fæt 'vessel', Anglo-Saxon fæt 'vessel, cup, pot' || Lithuanian pūodas, Latvian pōds 'pot' || Hittite pattar/n-, paddur 'basket', Lycian πατάρα 'basket, box' || **Uralic**: Finno-Ugric *pata 'cauldron, pot' > Finnish pata (gen. pādan), Estonian pāda 'kettle, cooking-pot' | Norw. Lapp batte / -d- 'pot, cauldron' | Highland Cheremis pat, East. Cheremis pat, pot 'pot' || Ob-Ugric *pūt 'cauldron' > Vogul pōt, pūt, put, Ostyak: put, pūt, pūt | Hungarian fazék 'cooking-pot' || **Dravidian** *patal ∇ 'pot' > Tamil patalai 'large-mouthed pot', Toda pāθ \mathfrak{g} 'large, broad-mouthed clay pot', Gonda, Malto patli 'cooking-pot'.

As we can see, according to the lexical data, the speakers of the Nostratic languages had no agriculture, no husbandry, no pottery. Hence, they did not belong to the Neolithic epoch.

3.2.1. Mesolithic? Bow, arrows, fishing net?

Shall we refer the Nostratic parent language to the Mesolithic or a still earlier epoch? It must be confessed that I do not know the answer. But let us try to look for information in the language.

From popular literature on archaeology (e.g. *Encyclopædia Britannica* XV [1971], 202) I have understood that *bow* and *arrows* are a Mesolithic achievement. They say also that in Mesolithic times the *fishing net* was invented. I do not know if this is true. If not, I shall appreciate correction. In any case, we may try to apply the criteria of bow, arrows and fishing net and see whether the Nostratic language existed after or before the invention of these artefacts.

In Nostratic there are three words that mean 'bow' in descendant languages. But in analyzing them we find that two of them (* $\text{ʃ}yār\zeta'u$ and *yan $\mathfrak{y}\mathfrak{v}$) have also the meaning of 'sinew'. The semantic prehistory is 'sinew' > 'string' > 'bow-string' > 'shooting bow'. In the third word (*lon ζ a) the meaning 'shooting bow' goes back to the verbal idea of 'bending' (just as in the English word *bow*).

[25] ***ʕyārku** 'sinew' > **Ham.-Sem.**: Sem.: Arabic **ʕirq-** 'root, sinew' || | **Indo-European** ***Hejarku-** > *arku- 'bow; net' > Latin **arcus** id. || Germanic ***arhwō** > Gothic **arhwazna** (a derived word), Old Norse **qr** (gen. **qrvar**), Anglo-Saxon **earh** 'arrow', English **arrow** || Greek **ἄρκυς, -υος** 'net' || | **Altaic**: Turkic *arka- > Osman **arpa-** 'an den Sattelriemen festbinden', Chaghatay **arpa-** 'den Faden einschließen', Tuva **aryt-** 'to knit, plait, weave', Khakas **arya-** 'to embroider in satin-stitch'; Turkic *arkān 'lasso, thick rope' > Chaghatay, Karaite **arqan**, Türkmen **arqān** 'lasso, thick rope', Qarachay-Balqar, Volga Tatar **arqan**, Uzbek **arqan**, Turkish **argan** 'thick rope, cable', Qırghız, Altay **arqan** 'rope made of hair', Crimea Tatar, Karaite, Bashqurt **arqan** 'thick rope, cable', Qazaq **arqan** 'thick rope, rope of horse hair'; Turkic → Russian **ар'кан** 'lasso' ¶ Nostr. ***ř** > Turkic ***r** in the preconsonantic position (Helimski's law) || | Mongolic: Class. Mong. **argamži**, Halha-Mong. **аргамж**, Buryat **аргамжа**, Kalmuck **архмж** 'rope, tether', Class. Oirat **aryamži** 'rope, line, halter, hawser, bridle', Class. Mong. **argamži-**, Halha **аргамжи-(x)** 'to tie, fasten with a rope', Class. Oirat **aryala-** 'to fasten, tether'; Mongolian → Tofalar **argamži**, Tuva **аргамчы** 'lasso, leather rope', Khakas **aryamžt**, Altay **армакчы** 'lasso, rope', Qırghız **аргамжы** 'rope (made of hair)' || | **Drau.** ***eřv** > Kurukh **eřeth** 'long-bow', Malto **eřtu** 'a bow', **eřtyo** 'archer'.

[26] ***uyaŋuŋv** 'sinew, tendon' 'bow (weapon)' > **Ham.-Sem.**: Egyptian **iwn.t** 'a kind of bow (weapon)' || | **Uralic**: there are two derived words: 1. ***yäntä** 'sinew, tendon' > Finnish **jänne** (gen. **jänteen**) 'tendon, sinew, cord' | Skolt Lapp (Notozero) **yēädda-pes·sā** 'loaded gun' (**pes·sā** is 'gun') | Highland Cheremis **үәбән**, Eastern Cheremis **үъбаң** 'bow-string', Lowland Cheremis **йыңдан** **үа'бан** 'шерстобойная струна' || Ob-Ugric ***yE:ntəv** 'bow-string' > Vogul ***yäntəv** > Konda Vogul **yantəv** & **yöntəv**, Sosva Vogul **yäntəw**; proto-Ostyak ***yöntəv** > Vakh Ostyak **yöntəv**, etc. | Old Hungarian **iđeg** 'sinew, bow-string', Hungarian **iđeg** 'nerve' || | Samoyedic ***yentə** 'bow-string' > Tundra Nenets **ен**, Obdorsk dial. **үен**, Forest Nenets **yen**, Nganasan **yenti**, Somatu Enets **үēđđi**, Taz Sölqup **či'nti**, Tı̄m Sölqup **či'nd**, Kamassian **nenč** id. || | 2. ***yonse** ~ ***yonkse** 'bow (weapon)' > Finnish **jousi**, **joutsi** 'bow' | proto-Lapp ***yōksz** 'bow' > Southern Lapp **juokse**,

Lule-Lapp *juoksə*, Kola (Kildin) Lapp *jūks* || proto-Mordvin *yōngaks ‘bow’ > Erzya & Moksha Mordvin *yōnks* id., (dial.) *yōns* ‘ручная шерсточесалка, лучок’ || proto-Cheremis *yōnež* ‘bow (weapon)’ > Highland Cheremis *yāñež*, Eastern Cheremis *yōnež* & *yōnuž* || Ob-Ugric *yōvəθ ‘bow’ > proto-Vogul *yāvət > Pelimka Vogul *yävt*, Low Lozva Vogul *yevt*; proto-Ostyak *yōvəf > Vakh Ostyak *yōval* id., etc. ||| Samoyedic *tnt̪ ‘bow (weapon)’ > Tundra & Forest Nenets *n̪ñt̪*, Nganasan *dint̪*, En *eđđo* id., Taz Sölqup *tnt̪* id., ünt̪ ‘arc’, qōn ünt̪ ‘rainbow’, Chaya Sölqup *ynže* ‘bow’, Kamassian *Tna*, *jīnə* id. || **A:** Turkic *jāń ‘bow’ (> *jāy ~ *jā) > Bashqurt *jan*, Shor *nan*, Old Turkic *jā*, Türkmen *jāy*, Turkish *yay*, Azeri, Gagauz, Karaite, Nogay *jay*, Uzbek *jay*, Qazaq *žay*, Qırghız *žā*, Altay *jā*, Yakut *sā* id., Chuvash *śu in uk-śu* ‘шерстобитный лук’ ◇ Ural. *-tä and *-k, se probably go back to suffixes of derivation. The vowel *ä in the first syllable of Ural. *yänt̪e is due to assimilation (vowel harmony). The labialization of the first vowel in *yōn(k)se is obscure.

[27] *lōŋka ‘to bend’ > **Hamito-Semitic:** Chadic: West Chadic: Hausa *lánk wà-sá* v. tr. ‘bend’ ||| Egyptian *rw3* ‘bow-string; Sehne, Flechse des Körpers; Sandalenriemen, Band am Türverschluß’ || **Indo-European:** NalE *lenk- ‘to bend’, *lonko-s ‘bow’ > Baltic: (*lenk- >) Lithuanian *lenkiù* (inf. *leñkti*) ‘to bend, crook, curve; bow’; (*lonko-s >) Lithuanian *lankas* ‘shaft-bow; hoop’, Latvian *lūoks* ‘Krummholz, Radfelge’, Prussian *lonki* ‘Steg’; Lithuanian *linkiù* (inf. *linkéti*) ‘sich neigen zu, wünschen’, Latvian *līkt* v. intr. ‘bend’, *liks* ‘crooked’; Prussian *lunkis* ‘corner’ | (IE *lenk- >) Slavic *lēk- ‘to bend’ > Church Slavonic **λάκъ** lēk-q / **λάψи** lēšti ‘to bend’, Russian (dial.) ‘лѧкий ‘crooked, curve’; (IE *lonko-s >) Slavic *lōkъ ‘bow’ > Old Church Slavonic **λάκъ** lōkъ, Russian *лук*, etc. || Germanic *laŋha- > Anglo-Saxon *lōhāle [pl. lō(a)n ‘in sceafit-lō(a)n ‘shaft-straps (to help in throwing spear)’; *sceafit* means ‘shaft of spear\arrow’], Old Norse *lengja* ‘strap (Riemen, Streifen)’, Danish *længe* ‘Seilstripe’ || **Uralic** *lānka- (~ *lūnka-) ‘dull arrow’ > Pelimka Vogul *läx* (pl. *länkät*) id.; Teryugan Ostyak *läŋk*, Demyanka Ostyak *läŋk* id. ||| Samoyedic: Tundra Nenets *łokы* & *łukы* ‘dull arrow (Klumppfeil)’, Forest Nenets *łuňk·t̪* ‘arrow’, Bay Enets *łoku* ‘round-pointed arrow, Klumppfeil’

||| Tundra & Kolima Yukagir *Ɂokił* ‘arrow’ || **A:** Tungusic **lujkE-* ‘to bow’ > Ewenki *lujkin-* ‘to bow the head’, Lamut *nōŋkə-* id., ‘to bow down’.

It is clear that ‘bow’ is not the most ancient meaning of these roots. The problems is only *when* these semantic changes (‘sinew’ > ‘bow, to bend’ > ‘a shooting bow’) took place. If these semantic changes occurred still in proto-Nostratic, then that language (at least, Late proto-Nostratic) existed during the appearance of shooting bows. But if the changes belong to the separate history of the daughter languages (which cannot be ruled out), the Nostratic parent language existed before the invention of shooting bows. In other words, linguistic palaeontology fails to give us a key for chronology.

A similar story is with words for ‘arrow’. The Nostr. word **ńoŋγ₁E* denotes arrows in Uralic and Altaic (Tungusic). But it also has the meaning of ‘sinew’, so that we may reconstruct the semantic history like that: ‘sinew’ > ‘bow-string’ > ‘shooting bow’ > ‘arrow’. The Nostratic word **płęšqE* (or **płęeqšE*) denotes arrows in Chadic and Finno-Ugric, but in Semitic it has the meaning of ‘spear’, so that the underlying semantic change is ‘spear’ > ‘arrow’. Here again we face the problem of chronologizing the changes. We do not know if the semantic changes took place within the history of proto-Nostratic or later, in the separate history of the daughter languages.

[28] **ńoŋγ₁E* (or **ńoŋγ₂E*) ‘sinew’, ‘to tie together’ > **Hamito-Semitic:** Semitic: [1] **naŋ₁n₁*- ‘sinew’, ‘tie’ (noun) > Arabic *naŋ₁-* ‘nerf, boyau, morceau de cuir avec lequel on entoure l’arc au haut de la cambrure ou sur les côtés; chaussure, soulier, sabot’, Biblical Hebrew נָגֵל ‘naŋ₁’ ‘a sandal’, Ugaritic ܢܹܻܰ ‘shoe, sandal’, Syriac ܢܹܻܻܰ ‘horse-shoe’, Mandaic ܢܹܻܻܰ ‘shoes, sandals’, Mehri *naŋ₁l*, Eastern Jibbali *naŋ₁l* ‘sandals’, Soqotri *naŋ₁l* ‘footwear’; [2] **√n₁l* ‘to tie’ > Bibl. Hebrew *√n₁l* ‘to lock (a door by straps), close, tie sandals on one’s foot’, Ugaritic *n₁l* ‘binden, schließen’, Jewish Aramaic *√n₁l* ‘to tie a shoe’, Mandaic *√n₁l* ‘to shoe a horse, bind up, tie’, Arabic *√n₁l* ‘to give shoes to smb.’, Ge’ez (derived noun) *naŋ₁līt* ‘widow whom the late husband’s brother marries by levirate’ (lit. ‘a tied one [f.]’) || **Uralic** **ńołe* ‘arrow’ > Finnish *nuołi* ‘arrow’, Estonian *nool* ‘arrow, bow’ | proto-Lappish **ńołz* ‘arrow’ > Norwegian Lapp *njuołlā* | Erzya & Moksha Mordvin *näl* id. | Cheremis *nölö* ‘arrowhead made of bone’ | Permian **ńoł* / **ńoły-* ‘arrow’ > Ziryene *ńɔv* / *ńɔvy-*, Votyak *ńɔł* || proto-Ob-Ugric **ńf₁l* ‘arrow’ > proto-Vogul **ńf₁l* > Vogul *ńēl*, *ńäl*, *ńɔł*; proto-Ostyak **ńäl* >

Vakh Ostyak **ńal** | Hungarian **nyíl** ||| Samoyedic *ńzəy > Tundra Nenets -'ń'i in түнн түнń'i 'gun' (lit. 'fire arrow'), Chaya Sölqup -ńī' in q'ęs'əńī' 'arrow for shooting at birds', Kamasiian 'ńá 'arrow, bullet' ||| another line of semantic changement: Finno-Ugric *ńolń (or *ńalń) 'to tie together' > Hungarian **nyaláb** 'bundle' | proto-Ostyak *ńula 'together' > Vakh Ostyak **ńula** || ? **Altaic:** Tungusic *°ńu;.łge (or *yu;.łge) > Ewenki **ńulgá ~ julga ~ yulga** 'arrow, iron arrowhead'.

[29] *p|p̥ešqE ~ *p|p̥eqšE 'spear' > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. *p̥vš|θχ- > Akkadian pāšku 'hunting spear' ('ein Jagdspieß') ||| West Chadic *pasuq- 'arrow' > Karekare pasku, Pero púžuk, Bole fssɔ, Jimi pušsko 'arrow' || **Uralic:** *pekše 'arrow (with a dull arrowhead)' > Lowland Cheremis pikš 'arrow, bow', Highland Cheremis pikš 'arrow' | Votyak puktč 'bow; arrow-fish' || Ob-Ugric: Vakh Ostyak pőψ 'arrow with a dull wooden arrowhead, arrow for hunting squirrels without spoiling their skin' | Lower Konda Vogul liʂənpāxtnəp-piwał 'Keil mit stumpfer Spitze für die Eichhörnchenjagd' (liʂən 'squirrel', pāxt- 'to shoot').

There is also a word (*tul|i|[g]ń) that seems to mean 'fishing net'. It actually means 'fishing net, to cast a fishing net' in several descendant languages. But its most ancient meaning is 'veil, to spread like a veil/net'.

[30] *tul|i|[g]ń 'to spread like a veil/net, cover with a veil/net, catch with a net' > **Hamito-Semitic:** Semitic *°✓t̥lyħ > Ge'ez የአንተላያ 'to spread, stretch, spread like a veil, veil, cover with a veil', Tigre አንተላዣዎች የአንተላያ 'to spread, stretch out' (Ge'ez, Tigre ← Cushitic?) ||| Egyptian ȝ 'to catch (fish)' or sim. (< *ȝuƿrń < *dȝuƿrń < *t̥ulgń) || **Kartvelian** *txewl- 'to fish by net' > Old Georgian txewl-, Georgian txevl- id., Svan txēl- 'to look for, hunt' || **Uralic:** Finno-Ugric *tulkń 'seine, drag-net' > Ziryene t̥il- ~ t̥iv-id. || Ob-Ugric *tōləꝝ ~ *tōꝝəl id. > proto-Vogul *t̥ləꝝ > Northern Vogul toliv, proto-Ostyak *tōꝝəl > Kazim Ostyak tōꝝət || **Altaic:** *t̥uíE- > Turkic *t̥iúla- 'to hobble (a horse, etc.)' > Old Turkic tuša-, Qazaq τұса- tūsa-, Qırğız tuša-, Tuva түшә-, Tofalar tuša- id.; ⇌ Turkic *t̥iúlak 'hobble' > Old Turkic tušay, Türkmen duşäq, Shamakhi Azeri tuşax, Qazaq τұсай tūsaw, Tuva түшәш, Tofalar tušaꝝ, Chuvash тăлă tălb id., Qırğız tuşo id.,

'fetters', Yakut tuhax 'loop, snare, chain, fetters' ¶ Türkmen, Tuva and Tofalar data suggest Turkic *t̪-, while Azeri tušax suggests *t̪'- ||| Tungusic *tule- 'to cast (a fishing net), install (a self-shooting bow, a trap, a snare)' > Orochi, Ude, Ulcha, Orok, Nanay, Ewenki, Negidal tulʒ-, Lamut tul-, Manchu tule- id., Orok tuləgds 'fishing net', tuləči- 'to fish with a net' ||| ? **Dravidian** *tulŋ 'weaver' > Parji tula id.

Thus, in the Nostratic vocabulary we do not find confirmation of the idea that proto-Nostratic was spoken by people having bows, arrows and fishing-nets. If bow, arrows and fishing-net are indeed Mesolithic achievements, there is no proof that the proto-Nostratic culture was Mesolithic.

4. Hunter-gatherers

4.1. Hunting

The life of hunters is reflected in some Nostratic lexemes: the hunter *follows the tracks* (*goki, *r'EʃɪɣɪSŋ), casts a *spear* (*šubyŋ, *p̪ešqE ~ *p̪eqšE [cf. above [29]]), tries to *hit the target* (*t̪apŋ) and not to *miss the aim* (*mentŋ).

[31] ***goki** 'track' ('way'), 'to follow the track' > **Hamito-Semitic**: Cushitic *gʷŋg- > Agaw *gūk- > Bilin gūg- (pl. gūkək), Hamta gʷug 'way' ||| Beja gīg- 'to go' ||| East Cushitic: Hadiya gōgo 'road', Kambatta goggō 'way' ||| Omotic: Zayse 'goge 'road', Shako kōku, Maji kok, Ari gōgí 'road, path' (loans from East Cushitic?) ||| Chadic *✓gk 'path' > West Chadic: Dera gókó, Bole gōgō, Pero kákjé 'road' ||| **Uralic** *koke 'to examine (a trap, snare), search' (→ 'find') > Finnish koke- 'to examine (a trap, snare), try' | Skolt Lapp kuopkä- 'to examine (the fish net)' ||| Samoyedic *ko- 'to see, find' > Enets koabo ~ kuabo 'I look for, I find', Tundra Nenets xō-š, Forest Nenets kō-š 'to find', Taz Sölqup qo-qo 'to find, sea, discover', Mator коямъ 'I find' ||| **Altaic**: Turkic *Kog(ŋ)- 'to follow the track, hunt' > Old Turkic qov- 'to follow, pursue, chase', Middle Turkic [13th c.] qov- 'to hunt', Chaghatay qaw-, quɣ- 'to pursue, drive away', Tuba, Quu-Kizhi qov- 'to pursue', Khakas xoy- 'to follow, pursue smbd.', Osman qoɣ- ~ qov- 'to pursue', Turkish kov-, Türkmen qov- 'to chase, pursue' ||| Chuvash xəv- ~ xu- 'to chase, pursue, follow'.

[32] *^rd'E_SS_N or *^rd'E_VX_S_N ‘to follow the tracks’ > **Ham.-Sem.**: ? Sem. *^vd_Ss > Arabic *dafs-* ‘trace, track, beaten road’ ||| Chadic: Ngizim *táṣa* v. ‘find’ || **Kartv.**: either [1] Kartv. *^vz̥i- > Georgian *zi-* (pres. *zev-*) ‘search, look for’, or [2] Kartv. *^vz̥v-/*^vz̥ex- > Georgian *zv(v)-* / *zex-:* *mi-zv(v)-/zex-* ‘etw. (z. B. Ideal) verfolgen’, *ga-zv(v)-/zex-* ‘let smbd. go first, follow smbd.’ || **Indo-Eur.** *dēs- / (?) *des- v. ‘find, to track (nachspüren)’ > Greek δίω ‘I shall find’, Greek [Hesychius] ἔδηεν· εὗρεν ‘(he) found’ || Albanian *ndesh* ‘antreffen’, *ndieh* (< *des-skō) ‘befinde mich’ || Old Church Slavonic Δε_Sшж dešq / Δε_Sснти desiti v. ‘find’, Church Slavonic Δо_Sснти dositi, οуΔо_Sснти udositi ‘to find, meet’ (unless from *deķ-) || **Altaic**: Mongolic *des > Class. Mong., Halha *des* ‘following, next, subsequent, second’, *dəsle-* v. ‘be next, follow’ ◇ If the Georgian cognate is *zi-/zev-*, the Nostr. etymon is *^rd'E_SS_N, while if it is *zv(w)-/zex-*, the Nostr. word is to be reconstructed as *^rd'E_VX_S_N. The Arabic cognate is valid only of the verb *v*d_Ss ‘to tread upon’ is derived from the noun and not vice versa.

[33] *šub_Sy_N ‘spike, spear, to pierce’ > **Hamito-Semitic**: Sem.: Arabic *v*sbb ‘to pierce’ || **Kartv.**: Georgian *šub-i* ‘spear’ || **Uralic**: Finno-Ugric *šuyę (< ***v*šuwę) ‘spear, bear-spear, spike (of a weapon)’ > Finnish (dial.) *hui*, *huitti* ‘spool; (round) tip, summit’, Estonian *hui* ‘netting-needle; spool (for weaving)’ | Swedish Lapp *suoj* ‘instrumentum quo retia texuntur’, Pite Lapp *'suoyyä* ‘netting-needle’ | Permian *šū > Ziryene *шы* št ‘spear, bar-spear, bayonet’, Votyak *ши* ši ‘sting, spike, bayonet’ || ? **Altaic**: Mongolic *søyuga > Class. Mongolian *søyuga*, Halha *cöeo* ‘eye-tooth, tusk, fang, horn needle, awl’ || Manchu *suyfun* ‘awl’.

[34] *tāp_N ‘to hit (the target)’ (‘to succeed, find, find an answer, identify, recognize’) > **Indo-Eur.** *top- ‘wohin gelangen, auf etwas treffen; Ort, wo man hingelangt oder hin will’ > Greek τόπος ‘place’, τοπάζω ‘to aim at, guess’ || ? Anglo-Saxon ȝafian ‘to consent to, permit, tolerate’ || Lithuanian tāp-tito become’, Latvian *tapt* id., pa-*tapt* ‘hingelangen, wozu kommen können’ || **Ham.-Sem.**: Sem. **v*tbb > Syriac *v*tbb (perfect *tāb*) ‘to be informed, know, make inquiry’, Arabic *ṭabb-* ‘habile, savant,

versé dans une science; circonspect', \checkmark **tabba**: perfect (< adj. of state) **tabba** 'était habile, savant', Soqotri **teb** 'he believed, knew', Ge'ez \checkmark **tabb** 'to be wise, prudent, sage' and Sabaic (derived verb) **tabb** 'to teach, proclaim' || **Uralic:** Finno-Ugric ***tap(p)N**- 'to find, succeed, fit' > Finnish **tapaan** / **tavata** 'to find, meet, come across' | Votyak **tupa-** 'to come to an agreement (after bargaining), to come to an understanding (with smb.); to fit' || **Altaic:** ***t'apN** 'to hit the target, find' > Turkic ***t'ap-** 'to find, hit the target, guess' > Old Turkic **tap-**, Middle Turkic [Ibn-Muhanna] **dap-** 'to find, learn', Yakut **tap-** 'to hit the target', Türkmen, Qumuq **tap-** 'to find', Azeri **tap-** 'to find, guess', Chuvash **tup-** 'to find, detect', **tupb** 'solution of the riddle' || pre-proto-Mongolic ***taþa-** > proto-Mongolic ***taþa-** 'to guess' > Dungxiang **taþa-**, Class. Mongolian **taþa-**, Halha **tā-** 'to guess, solve the riddle', Kalmuck **tā-** 'to tell the fortune, suppose', Ordos, Monguor **t'ā-** 'deviner, conjecturer'; Mongolic \leftrightarrow Ewenki **tāv-**, Lamut **tā-** 'to recognize\identify (smbd.), guess', Negidal **tak-**, Ulcha, Nanay **taqō-** 'to recognize\identify', Class. Manchu **taqa-** '(er)kennen, können', Sibe Manchu **taqə-mə** 'to identify' || **Drau.** ***tāpp-** 'appointed time, proper time' > Tamil **tāppu** 'expected moment, apppointed time, convenience', Malayalam **tāppu** 'proper time, opportunity', Toda **top** 'time, chance'.

[35] ***ment̪N** 'to miss one's aim' (\rightarrow 'to pass by') > **Uralic:** Finno-Ugric ***mentä-** 'to miss one's mark, be mistaken' > proto-Lappish ***məntē-** id. > Lule Lappish **mieddē-** ~ **mäddē-** 'fehlen, Fehler machen, fehlgreifen, sich irren', Norwegian Lappiah **mæd'det** 'to miss (not hit), mistake (one's way)', Kildin Lappish **mē ánda** 'weg, fort' (\leftarrow *'vorbei') || Vakh Ostyak **mintəytə-** 'to miss one's aim (in shooting)'; Middle Lozva Vogul **mänt** ~ **mäntä** ~ **mänti**, Konda Vogul **mänt** ~ **mənt**, Pelimka Vogul **mäñtl** 'längs, entlang', Vogul **åm** **mäntsəm** 'passing past me' ('прохождение МИМО меня') || **Indo-Eur.** ***ment-** '(in) vain; liar, deceit' > Greek **μάτην** 'in vain, fruitlessly', **μάτη** 'fault' || Latin **mentior** / **mentiri** 'to tell a lie', **mentitus** 'false' || Old Prussian **mēntimai** 'wir lügen', **epmēntimai** 'wir belügen' || ? **Ham.-Sem.:** West Chadic ***mant-** 'to forget' > Hausa **mânče** / **mântā**, Gwandara **môči** | Goemay **mən**, Montol **mun**,

Sura mander | Bole mont-, Karekare mantan, Bele móntú, Kirfi mónd-, Gera móñž- | Miya man- id.

The game of the hunters: differents kinds of *antelope and deer* (*gurHa, *ʔEʃʃi, *boča, *ińřu¹ [cf. above [5]]), *bovines* (*bučka, *čoma, *č'aʷ₁V₁R₂V₂ [or *čuR₂V₂]), *wild goats and sheep* (*y|gawV, *bukEy|čV, *diga, *k'ä̚čV), *wild boars* (*ńVpVrV) Among terms of hunting terminology we find names for *herds* (*pōčü), special names for *lambs and kids* (*gadi). In addition to ungulates — their main source of meat, they paid attention to *fur-bearing animals* (*bUyžV), among them *squirrels* (*ʔ|hUrV[-ba]) and *martens* (*kunhV[čV]).

[36] *gurHa ‘antelope, male antelope’ > **Ham.-Sem.:** Cushitic *√gʷr̥h̥ > Beja garuwa ‘antelope’ || East Cushitic: Sidamo guru?m-iččo (pl. guru?me) ‘antelope, gazelle, roe’ || South Cush.: Iraqw gʷarə̚hi, Gorowa gʷera?ahi, Alagwa gʷera?ai, gʷarehe ‘dik-dik antelope’, Burunge gʷereha ‘decula antelope’ ||| West Chadic: Goemay žirri ~ žirri ‘roe antelope’, Ngizim g̃àrāfiyà ‘(a kind of) antelope’ || Central Chadic: Buduma ḥgári, Logone garia ‘antelope’ || **Altaic:** Mongolic *gūran ‘antelope, male roebuck’ > Middle Mongolian guran ‘(a kind of) ‘hornless antelope’, Class. Mong. gura(n) ‘antelope’, Halha-Mong. gur ‘male deer’, Buryat гүрэн ‘wild goat, elk’, Dörböt Oirat gurun, Kalmuck guru ‘male roe-deer; saygak antelope’; Mongolian → Southern Ewenki gūran ‘wild goat’; the length of the Mongolic *u is suggested by the loanword in Ewenki ||| Korean: Middle Kor. korání, New Korean koranni, Korean (Northern dialects) korani ‘deer’.

[37] *ʔEʃʃi ‘deer’ > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. *ʔayl- ‘ram’ > Biblical Hebrew אֵל 'ayl 'ayl (pl. אֵלִים 'elim), Ugaritic ʔ₁l (= *ʔēl-u) ‘ram’, ? Akkadian (y)āl-u id., Jewish Aramaic אֵלָא ʔayl-ā ‘Schiffsbock’; the ancient meaning ‘deer’ has been preserved in the derived Sem. noun *ʔayl'yal- ‘deer, mountain goat’ > Biblical Hebrew ʔay'yal ‘Cervus capreolus’, Ugaritic ʔayl, Jewish Aramaic אֵלָא ʔayyāl-ā ‘deer’, Mandaic aiala ‘deer, hart’, Arabic ʔayyil-, ʔiygal- ~ ʔuyyāl- ‘mountain goat, stag’, Ge'ez hayyal ‘ibex, mountain goat’ (the origin of h- is mysterious), Akkadian ayyal-u ‘deer’; Canaanite > Late Egyptian ijr (= *ʔayyāli ~ *ʔayyōli gen., according

to Vycichl) > Coptic *ειυλ*, *εειυλ*, *ιυλ*, *ευλ* id. || **Indo-Eur.** **ṛ̥hel-n-* ‘deer’ > Greek ἐλάς ~ ἐλλας (-λλ- < *-ln-) ‘young deer’; (with the suffix *-bhō-) Greek ἔλαφος ‘deer’ (<**el-ŋ-bhō-s*) | Armenian *ełn* (gen. *ełin*) ‘female deer’ | Old Irish *elit* (< **elŋ-t-*) ‘chamois’, Welsh *elain* ‘female deer’ | Old Lithuanian *elleris*, Lithuanian *élnis*, *élnias* ‘deer’, Latvian *añnis* ‘elk’, Prussian *alne* ‘female deer’ | Old Church Slavonic *jelenъ*, Russian *о'лень* ‘deer’, Old Church Slavonic *alънь*, *lanь*, Russian *лань* ‘female deer, fallow dear’ | ? Tocharian A *ゅäl* (with a prosthetic *ゅ*-) ‘antelope’; IE **ḥel-n-* seems to go back to the oblique form (with *-n-) of a heteroclitic stem; IE derived stem **?el-ḱ-/*j-ḱ-* > Old Indian *'ṛśyas* ‘male antelope’, Old High German *ēlhō*, Anglo-Saxon *eolh*, Old Norse *elgr*, Russian *лосъ* ‘elk’ || **Uralic:** Tundra Yukagir *ile* ‘deer’ || **Altaic:** Turkic **əjəlik* ‘roe-buck, female wild goat’ > Old Turkic *elik* id., Shor, Qırghız, Qaraqalpaq *elik* ‘roe-buck’, Tuva *elik*, Tofalar *əlik* ‘female roe’, Middle Qıpchaq (XIII c.) *elik* ‘male gazelle’, Khakas *elük*, Altay *elik* ‘roe-buck, female wild goat’, Bashqurt *iňk* ‘female wild goat’, Azeri *älik* ‘roe’ ||| Mongolic **ili* > Class. Mong. *ili*, Halha-Mong. *il*, Kalmuck *ilə* ‘young deer, fawn’ || **Drau.** **il(ar)▽-* ‘(a kind of) deer’ > Malto *ilaru* ‘mouse deer’ ||| Telugu *irri* (< **il-r▽*) ‘antelope’ || **Kartv.:** Lashkhi Svan *ilw* ‘chamois’, Lower Bal Svan *il* ~ *hil* ‘roe’.

[38] ***boča** ‘(young) deer’ > **Kartv.** **boč-* > Georgian *boč-iḱ-i* ‘one-year old deer’, *boč-ola* ‘one-year old calf’ || **Uralic** **poča* ‘reindeer; reindeer fawn’ > Finno-Ugric: proto-Lapp **p̄jččy* ‘reindeer’ > Norw. Lapp *boazø*, *bqčicu-* ~ *bqwcu-* ‘(tame) reindeer’, Lule-Lapp *p̄ččy* id. | Cheremis *pūčö* ✎ *pučъ* ✎ *pūčö* ‘reindeer’ | Sarapul Votyak *pužey* id. ||| ? Samoyedic: Kamassian *poždu* ‘goat, *Capra sibirica*’, Koibal (18th c.) *pōdō* ‘goat’, *pōoto* ‘*Cervus capreolus*’ ||| Yukagir *paja*, *paje* ‘elk’ || **Altaic:** Tungusic **bučan* ‘(a kind of) deer’ > Negidal *bočan* ‘*Cervus elaphus xanthopygos*’, Orochi *buča(n-)* id., Ulcha *boča(n-)~buča(n-)* id., Nanay *bočā* ✎ *boca(n-)* ✎ *bučā* id., ? Manchu *bučin* ‘hirschartiges Fabeltier mit langem Schwanz’ (reinterpreted by folk etymology as abbreviation from *buħu* ‘deer’ + *tucin* ‘beginning’), ? Lamut *būčən* ‘*Moscus moschiferus*’ → Yakut *būčān~bīčān* id. (earlier also ‘*Capreolus*’?) → ? Ewenki *bīčən* ‘roe,

Capreolus'; the route of borrowing may have been different as well: from an unknown Tungusic source to Yakut and then to Lamut and Ewenki || ?? **Ham.-Sem.**: Sem. *✓**b**θχ > Arabic **baθax-**, **buθχ-** 'lamb' (if *-θχ- < *-θχ-) ||| ?? East Chadic: Lele **bisi** 'duiker'.

[39] ***buķa** 'bovine(s)' > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic ***ba'kar-** 'cattle' > Hebrew בָּקָר **ba'kār**, Jewish Aramaic בָּקָר אֲבָקָר **ba'kār'**-ā, Syriac بَاقِرَّ **baqīr'-ā** 'cattle', Arabic **baqar-** '(wild\domesticated) bovines, ox, bull, cow', Sabaic **bkr** 'bovines, head of cattle'; der. Semitic stem ***buķār-** > Arabic **buqār-** 'head of (large) cattle', Akkadian **buqār-** 'cattle' ||| ? Berber *✓**bkr** > Ahaggar Twareg **bayar** v. 'be rich' ||| East Chadic: Birgit **bögörò** 'male antelope', **bögöréy** 'female antelope', Dangla **bogór** 'antelope', ? Mokilko **bögú** 'horse antelope (kudu), ? Migama **bārgú** 'oryx antelope' ||| **Indo-European** ≈***būk-**/**bowk-** 'bull' > proto-Slavic ***bíkъ** (< ***būko-**) 'bull' > Bulgarian **бик**, Serbo-Croatian **bík**, Slovene **bík**, Czech, Slovak **býk**, Polish **býk**, Russian **бык** 'bull'; proto-Slavic ***běkъ** (< ***buk-**) > Serbo-Croatian **bāk** 'bull' || Celtic f. ***bukk-ō** 'cow' > Old Welsh **buch** 'iuvanca', Cornish **buch** 'cow', Breton **buc'h~buoc'h** 'cow' ¶ IE ***b-** < ***bʰ-** due to the IE law of incompatibility of voiced aspirates and voiceless consonants || **Altaic**: Turkish ***buka** 'bull, sire bull' > Old Turkic **buqā**, Chaghatai **buγa**, Turkish **boğa**, Türkmen, Volga Tatar **buga**, Middle Qipchaq **buγa**, Qazaq, Uzbek, East Turkic **buqa**, Azeri, Crimea Tatar, Karaite, Qumiq, Nogay, Qaraqalpaq, Bashkurt, Yakut **buγa**, Khakas **puya**, Tuva **puya**, Tofalar **puhā** 'bull' ||| Mongolic (< Turkic?) ***buqa** 'bull' > Class. Mongolian **буqa** id., Halha **buγ** 'sire-bull', Kalmuck **buγū** 'Stier'.

[40] ***čoma** 'aurochs, wild bovine' > **Kartvelian**. ***čoma** > Imereti Georgian **čoma** 'cattle (Rindvieh)' || **Drau**. ***čoma** 'wild buffalo' > Pengo **homa**, Manda **hama** 'bison', Kui **soma** 'wild buffalo', Kuwi **homma** & **homa** 'sambar'.

[41] ? ***č'awar** (or ***čuR**) 'bull, calf' > **Ham.-Sem.**: Sem. ***baωar-** 'bull' > Hebrew שׂוֹר **šōr**, pl. שׂוֹרִים **šōwā'řim**, Ugaritic 𐎗, Bibl. Aramaic pl. תֹּרְיַן **tō'ryān**, Jewish Aramaic תֹּרְאָה **tō'r-ā**, Syriac ئەل تاۋىر **taw'r-ā**, Arabic شَوْر **shawr-**, Epigraphic South Arabian شَوْر **shawr**, Ge'ez, Tigre አርሱር **ərsosər**,

Akkadian šūr- | Sem. → IE *tawro-s ‘bull, aurochs’ > Mycenian Greek *tawros*, Greek ταῦρος id. || Albanian tarok, tarak || Latin *taurus*, Oscan acc. ταύρομ, Umbrian acc. pl. turuf, toru id. || Old Irish tarb, Irish tarbh, Welsh tarw, Breton tarv, Cornish tarow id. || Slavic *turъ > Old Church Slavonic **ТУРЪ** turъ ‘aurochs’ | Lithuanian taūras ‘aurochs’, Prussian tauris ‘bison’; Baltic → Finnish tarvas ‘reindeer’ || Old Norse þjórr, Swedish tjur, Dutch (dial.) deur ‘bull’ || **Indo-European** *stewr-/stowr- ‘bull’ > Avestan staora ‘large cattle’, Middle Persian stōr ‘draught-animal’, Persian sutūr ~ ustūr ‘beast of burden (horse, mule, ass)’ || Gothic stiur ‘male calf, bull’, Old Norse stiðr, Old High German stior, German Stier, Anglo-Saxon stēor ‘bullock, steer’, English steer || **Altaiic:** [1] Tungusic *°čur- (~ *čir-?) > Ewenki čurup ‘wild deer (2–3 years old)’ and possibly Urmī Ewenki čirak, Maya Ewenki čirap ‘elk (4 years old)’, Negidal čirap ‘male elk (3–4 years old)’ ||| [2] Possibly Class. Mong. չար ‘wild deer’ and Altay, Teleut, Quu-Kizhi چار ‘ox (Ochs, Arbeitsochs, кладеный\рабочий бык)’, Baraba, Küärik čar ‘ox’ → Class. Mong. چار, Kalmuck čar, Halha شاپ ‘castrated ox’ (in this case Nostr. *awR > Alt. *aR).

[42] *χ̥l̥gawV ‘wild sheep\goats’, (→ or ←) ‘wild game’ > **Indo-Eur.** *χɔwi- ‘sheep’ > Hittite udu-iš [= *χaw-is] ‘sheep’, Luwian xawi-, Lycian χawā id. ||| Narrow IE *χ̥l̥owi-(s) ‘sheep’ > Old Indian 'avi- || Greek ὄντις id. || Latin ovi-s || Old Irish ói ‘sheep’ || Old Norse ær, Anglo-Saxon éowu, éowe, Old Saxon ewi, Old High German ouwi, ou ‘sheep’, English ewe, as well as Gothic awistr ‘sheep-cote, sheep-pen’, awēþi ‘flock of sheep’ || Lithuanian avis, Latvian avs | Old Church Slavonic овь-са, Russian овца ‘sheep’; Church Slavonic, Old Russian овьнъ, Serbo-Croatian ован, Bulgarian овен, Czech oven ‘ram’ || Armenian hoviw (< *χ̥l̥owi-pā-) ‘shepherd’ || **Ham.-Sem.:** Egyptian ՚w.t ‘Kleinvieh (Schafe und Ziegen)’, ‘Wild’, ‘vierfüssige Tiere’ ||| ?? West Chadic: Angas-Goemay *χ̥V ‘goat’ > Sura ψ̥, Angas ψ̥, Yiwom ψ̥ | Fyer ψ̥ id. | ? Warji áwáy id. || Central Chadic: Gude gr.: Nzangi ՚owę, Bata-Garua ՚uhé ‘goat’ | Mandara: Nakatsa ՚owę, Glavda ՚ágwà, Dghwede ՚owę, ՚owę id., Giziga ՚áw | Zime-Batna úh̥wú id. || ? East Chadic: Dangla áw-kò

id. || **Altaic** *ābV ‘wild game, hunt’ > Turkic *āb id. > Old Turkic āv ‘hunt’, Türkmen āv, Turkish av, Uzbek aw. East Turkic av $\overset{\text{d}}{\text{a}}$ w $\overset{\text{d}}{\text{o}}$ w. Qumiq haw. Crimea Tatar, Karaite av ‘wild game, hunt’, Qazaq, Volga Tatar av, Qırghız ү ‘hunt’ ||| Mongolic *aba > Middle Mongolian, Class. Mong. aba, Halha av ‘chase, hunt’ ||| ? Tungusic *abdu-(_n) ‘cattle, flock’ > Ewenki abdu id., ‘domesticated reindeer’, Lamut abdu ‘husbandry, property’, Negidal abdu ‘flock’, Orok abdu ‘husbandry, property, wealth’.

[43] *diga ‘goat’ > **Kartu.** *dqa- ‘goat’ > Old Georgian, New Georgian txa, Megrelian txa- (pl. txal-), Laz (m)txa- [pl. (m)txal-], Svan daqəl-, daq- ||| **Ham.-Sem.:** Omotic *d ∇ g-~*d ∇ k- ‘capricorn, lamb’ > Oyda doge ‘greater kudu’, Basketo dák iši, Doka dakiša ‘lamb’, Badditu deggele ‘goats’ ||| West Chadic: Angas-Goemay: Chip d $\dot{\text{i}}$ gun ‘he-goat’, Kofyar dəgūñ id. | Ron: Fyer ndákùs ‘he-goat’ || Central Chadic: Padokwo d $\dot{\text{u}}$ g-zumā id. | Tera žig ‘goat’ || East Chadic: Ndam d $\dot{\text{e}}$ gâ, Tumak žig ‘goat’ ||| **Indo-Eur.** *digh-~*dik- ‘goat’ > Greek (dial.) [Hesychius] δίξα ‘goat’ ||| Albanian dhi ||| Old High German ziga ‘goat’ (> German Ziege) ||| Armenian tik ‘leather bottle, goat’s skin’ ◇ IE *-k- is a regular reflex of the consonant *-q-; the origin of the voiced *-g^h- is not clear; the initial *d- for the expected *d^h- is probably due to the IE incompatibility law, forbidding a combination of voiced aspirates and voiceless consonants in the same root.

[44] *k'ä¹č ∇ ‘wild goat’ (or ‘sp. of antelope’) > **Kartu.:** Svan kwiçra ‘wild goat’ ||| **Ham.-Sem.:** Berber *✓ χ s (meta-emphatization from *✓ k- χ) > Ahaggar Twareg ti- χ se, Iznacen, Rif $\ddot{\chi}$ i- χ si ‘goat’ ||| Omotic: Bencho keš ‘goat’ ||| West Chadic: Hausa káčawṛi ‘(a kind of) antelope’, Ngizim gáskây ‘roam antelope’ ||| Central Chadic: Kilba kušiši ‘goat’ ||| **Altaic:** Turkic *k'äči ‘goat’ > Old Oghuz, Chaghatai, Karaite käči, Turkish keçi, Osman gäži, Azeri, Gagauz keči, Türkmen geči, Volga Tatar käžä, Bashqurt käzä.

[45] *bukE χ f ∇ ‘billy goat, ram’ > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem.: ? Ge'ez $\aleph\aleph\aleph\aleph\aleph$ ‘ram, billy goat’ (→ Ge'ez $\aleph\aleph\aleph\aleph\aleph$ id.) (acc. to Leslau, from Cushitic) ||| Berber *✓ bgg > Ahaggar Twareg a-baǵúǵ ‘young ram’ ||| Cushitic *✓ bk χ (> *✓ bg χ by assimilation) ‘sheep, goat’ > Beja bōk, Amar'ar Beja bok ‘billy

goat' || Agaw *bag₁ŋ₂- 'sheep' > Khamir beg-a (pl. big), Kwara bag-a, Kemant bega → Ge'ez ቅጂ ቅጂ 'sheep, ram', Tigray begi, Tigre bagguš id.; Tigray → Bilin begg-a (pl. begg) id. || South Cush.: Iraqw, Gorowa bēsi, Alagwa bēsi 'sheep', Burunge bē?-imo, pl. bē?-a id., Kwadza baʔamuko 'ewe lamb', Dahalo bēʔa 'buffalo' ||| Omotic: Kafa bagē, Shinasha baggō 'sheep' ||| Chadic *(m)bak|g 'ram, sheep' > West Chadic: South Bauchi: Kir mbak 'male' (referring to rams in: mbak partim 'ram'), Dira b̄gállá, Geji b̄gállà 'ram' || Central Chadic: Gude bágá, Fali of Jilbu b̄gá, Fali of Muchella b̄gá, Fali of Bwagira b̄gán, Bata-Garua mbágé, Bata-Demsa bágé 'sheep', Mwulyen mbágá 'ram', mbágatí 'sheep', Bachama mbágá 'ram', mbágátē 'sheep', Gudu mbéksü 'sheep' | Glavda mbákálaka, Gava mbákúlská 'ram' || Indo-Eur. (*bhūgH_o->)*bhūgo-s ~ ("Koseform", according to Pokorny) *bhukko-s 'billy goat, ram', f. *bhūg-ā ~ *bhukk-ā 'she-goat, ewe' (Devoto: '*Capra prisca*') > Av būza 'he-goat', New Persian buz 'goat (male or female)' || Armenian buč 'sucking] lamb' || Celtic: Middle Irish bocc, pocc, Welsh bwch, Cornish boch, Breton bouc'h 'Bock' || Germanic *bukka- > Old Norse bukkr, bokkr, bokki 'buck', Anglo-Saxon bucca > English buck, Old High German boc > German Bock || ? Altaic: Mongolic *bugu 'deer' > Class. Mong. bugu, Halha-Mong. buga, Kalmuck buγe 'male deer', Mongolian bugu 'deer', Middle Mongolian buγu 'deer'; Mongolian → some Tungusic lgs.: Ewenki buγu, Solon buγo 'Cervus elaphus xanthopygos', Manchu buγu ~ buγo ~ buγu 'deer' ||| Turkic *bugu > (or Mongolian →) Old Uighur (13th c.) buγu 'deer', Turkish (dial.). Uzbek, Qırghız buγu, Nogay buγı 'male deer', Chaghatai بۇغۇ 'buγu 'kind of antelope or wild goat', Qazaq būγı 'deer'.

[46] *vŋ₁ŋ₂r 'wild boar' > Ham.-Sem.: Sem. *vŋ₁pr > Arabic ſifr- ~ ſufr 'wild boar, swine, young pig' (Freytag: ſifr- 'porcus, aper', ſufr- 'porcus') || Indo-Eur.: Narrow Indo-Eur. *apro-s 'wild boar' (with *a on the analogy of *kapro-s 'he-goat') > Latin aper, -ī 'wild boar', Umbrian apruf, ABROF id. (accus. pl.), aprunu id. (acc. sg.) || Germanic *ebura- 'wild boar' > Anglo-Saxon eofor, Middle Low German ever, Old High German ebur, German Eber || Balto-Slavic *weprya- (with *w- on the analogy of some other word) > Latvian vepriš 'castrated boar' | Slavic

*veprъ ~ *veprъ ‘wild boar’ > Old Russian *veprъ*, Russian *вепрь*, Bulgarian ‘*вепър* ‘wild boar’, Ukrainian ‘*вепер* ‘wild boar, hog’, Serbo-Croatian *věpar*, Polish *wieprz*, Czech *vepř* ‘hog’ || ?≈ Thracian *ѣбрѹс* ‘ram’.

[47] **נוֹצָרִי*¹ ‘(male, young) artiodactyl’ > **Ham.-Sem.**: Sem. **ናይር-* ~ **ናት-* ‘male wild ass, ass foal’ > Biblical Hebrew *נַיְרִים* *ናይֵר*, Samaritan Hebrew *תִּר* ‘male ass, ass foal’, (with a possessive pronominal suffix) Biblical Hebrew *תִּרְיִם* *ናይֵרִים* is on the analogy of **1a2a3-* nouns, cp. the Samar. Hebrew cognate form *תְּרִם*, Ugaritic *ና*, Jewish Aramaic *ናይֵר-א* ‘ass foal’, Arabic *نَيْر* ‘wild ass, ass’ || **Kartv.** **ირ-* > Georgian *irem*- ‘deer’ || **Indo-Eur.** **ñ'er(i)-* > Narrow IE **er-*, *eri-* ‘(some) horned artiodactyl’ > Latin *ariēs*, *ariēt-* ‘ram’ ||| Baltic: Prussian *eristian* ‘Lämmchen’, Lithuanian (*j)éras*, Latvian *jērs* ‘lamb’ ||| NaIE **er(i)-bh-* (with the suffix *-*bh(0)-* of animal names) > Greek *ἴριψος* ‘Böcklein, junge Ziege’ || Celtic: Old Irish *heirp* (**erbh-ī-*) ‘dama, capra’, *erb(b)* (**erbh-ā-*) ‘cow’, Gaelic *earb* ‘Reh’ || Tocharian *yriye*, *yari* ‘lamb’ || **Drau.** **ir-* ‘(a kind of) deer, stag’ > Old Telugu *iri* ‘stag’, Tamil *iralay* ‘stag, kind of deer’, Kannada *erale*, *erale*, Tulu *erale* ‘antelope, deer’ ◇ The IE root results from coalescence of two Nostr. roots: the one in question and Nostr. **perq'i*¹ ‘(a species of) horned ruminant artiodactyl’. I am grateful to V. Blažek for drawing my attention to this detail and to the Tocharian cognate of the root.

[48] **පෙකු* ‘pack, wild cattle’ > **Indo-Eur.** **peku* / **pekwe-* ‘cattle’ > Old Indian ‘*paśu-~pa's'vah*’ ‘cattle’, Avestan *pāsu-* id. (mainly ‘Kleinvieh’) | Latin *pecū* (gen. *pecūs*), *pecus* (gen. *pecoris*) ‘cattle’, Umbrian *pequo* ‘pecua’ | Germanic: Gothic *faihu* ‘property’, Old Norse *fē*, Anglo-Saxon *feoh*, Old Saxon *fehu*, Old High German *fihu* ‘Vieh’ | Lithuanian *peku*, Prussian *pecku* id. || **Altaic** **p'ok'ür-* ‘bovine animal, bull’ > Turkic **h,jökür-/h,okur-* ‘bull, ox’ > Old Turkic *öküz* ‘bull, ox’, Sari-Yugur *kus~qus*, East Turkic *öküz*, (dial.) *höküz*, Uzbek *hwkiz* ‘ox’, Turkish *öküz*, Türkmen *öküð*, Azeri *öküz*, Crimea

Karaite ögüz, Trakai Karaite öğüz ‘bull, ox’, Qumuq, Qarachay-Balqar ögüz ‘ox’, Crimean Tatar ogüz ‘bull’, Lobnor ögüs ‘bull’, Qazaq, Nogay, Qaraqalpaq ögiz ‘ox’, Volga Tatar ügəz, Bashkurt ügəs ‘bull’, Yakut оγус ‘ox, male domestic animal’, Chuvash въг_ър ‘bull’ ||| Mongolic *ψüker ‘bovine animal (bull, ox, cow)’ > Middle Mongolian hüker ‘large cattle’, Class. Mongolian түкөр, Halha, Buryat үхэр, Kalmuck ükər, Moghol үкār, Dagur хүкүр, Dongxiang fugie(r), Monguor fug_uor ‘bull, ox’ || ??? **Ham.-Sem.**: East Chadic: Ndam pàgṣär ‘antelope’.

[49] *gadi (or *gati?) ‘kid, young goat’, ? ‘(a kind of) antelope’ > **Ham.-Sem.**: Sem. *'gadiy- ‘kid, lamb’ > Biblical Hebrew גָּדִי gā'dī ‘kid\lamb’, Punic گدی, [Plautus] GADE, Old Aramaic گدی ‘goat’, Jewish Aramaic ܓܵܕܵܲܲ gād'ū-ā ‘kid\lamb’, Syriac ܓܵܕܵܲܲ ܲܲ gād'ū-ā ‘kid’, Mandaic ݁ܵܲܲܲܲ gādīā ‘kid, young goat’, Arabic ݁ܵܲܲܲ ܲܲ gādū- ‘kid (chevreau)’, Akkadian gādū ‘male kid’ ||| Berber *չայդ (< pre-Berber *կայդ) ‘kid, (young) goat’ > Ahaggar Twareg e-չայդ, Tayert, East Tawellemmet e-չայդ, Ghat i-չայդ, Ghadamsi a-՛ն (pl. ՛ն-ան) ‘kid’, Ait-Izdeg i-չայդ ‘young billy-goat (jeune bouc, chevreau)’, Tashelhit a-չայդ ‘billy-goat’ ||| Chadic: West Chadic: Hausa gàdá ‘crested duiker (antelope) *Cephalophus Grimmii*’, gàdár kúrmì ‘duiker *Cephalophus rufilatus*’, Pa'a gàtará ‘buck’ || Central Chadic: Zime-Batna góðày ‘buck’, Dghwede ڙڏڻ ڳيره ‘antelope’ || **Indo-Eur.** *għħaydo- ‘(young) buck, goat’ > Latin haedus ‘kid, young goat’ || Gothic gait_s, Old High German geiz, Old Norse geit, Anglo-Saxon ȝæt > English goat ¶ The media *-d- (for the expected *-d^h-) is obscure || **Drau.** *kaṭ- ‘young male of horned domestic animal’ > Tamil காட்டு, காட்டவு, காட்டாய் ‘male of sheep\goat\buffalo’, காட்டரி, கிட்டரி ‘heifer, young cow’, Malayalam കാട്ടാ, കിട്ടാവു ‘young male of cattle’, Kota kaṛṇ nāg ‘buffalo calf between 2 and 3 years’, kaṛṇ kurṇ ‘cow calf between 2 and 3 years’, Kannada ಕಾಡಾಸು, Kodagu ಕಾಡಿಕಿ, Tulu ಗಾಡಾಸೆ ‘young cow\buffalo’, Gondi ಕಾರ್ಣಾ ‘young buffalo’, Konda ಗೃಳು, Kui ಗ್ರಾಧು ‘calf’, Kui ಕ್ರಾಜ್ ‘young female buffalo\goat’, Kurukh ಕಾರ್ತಿ id., ಕಾರ್ಣಾ ‘young male buffalo’, Brahui ಖಾರ್ ‘ram’, ಖಾರಾಸ್ ‘bull, bullock’ ◇ The preconsonantic (rather than expected postconsonantic) position of *j, *y in Berber and Indo-Eur. is due to

metathesis (possibly favoured by root structure patterns in both languages).

[50] ***b**Uy²Δ ‘fur-bearing animal’ > **Indo-Eur.** ***b**hēl- ‘marten’ or sim. > Latin fēlēs ‘wild cat, marten, polecat’ || Welsh bele (< ***b**hēlego-) ‘marten’ || **Uralic** *poy²Δ ‘ermine’ > proto-Lapp *pōyt̩s̩k id. > Norw. Lapp buoidā ~ buoi'dâgâ, Kildin Lapp pu:y:dey ||| Samoyedic: Tundra Nenets пия, пияко, Forest Nenets рүтү:ea ~ рүтү:ea, Bay Enets fiéda, Nganasan fídu, pídu, Mator hudja ‘ermine’ ¶¶ Nen пияко and originally Lapp *pōyt̩s̩k are diminutive forms || **Altaic**: Mongolic *bul'gan ‘sable’ > Middle Mongolian bulugan ~ bulyan, Class. Mong. булаган, Halha-Mong. бүлгэ(н), Kalmuck бүлһиң bulyān id. || **Drau.** *pulli_ ‘tiger’ > Tamil puli, pul, Malayalam, Kannada, Telugu puli, Kota pu, Toda pūṣy, Tulu pili, Koraga hili, Kolami, Naikri pul, Naiki pul(a), Gadba pullu ~ pulu ~ berpul, Gondi pullī ~ puli ~ pul.

[51] ***?h**UrΔ(-ba) ‘squirrel or a similar animal’ > **Ham.-Sem.**: Sem. ***?h**rrab- > Akkadian arrabu ‘dormouse (?)’, ‘jerboa (?)’ || **Indo-Eur.** *wer- (and with reduplication: *werwer-, *wewer-, *waywer-, *wiwer-, *wāwer-) ‘squirrel’ and sim. > New Persian varvara ‘squirrel’ || Latin vīverra ‘polecat’ || Welsh gwiwer, Breton gwiber ‘squirrel’ || Lithuanian vaiveris ~ vaivaras ~ vaivarys ‘male polecat’, vēveris, vaiveris, voveris, voverē ‘squirrel’, Latvian vāvere, -is id., Prussian weware id. | Slavic *vēver-ьka, -ika ‘squirrel’ > Old Church Slavonic věverica, Polish wiewiórka, Czech veverka, Ukrainian вивірка, Serbo-Croatian (v)jeverica || Germanic *aik-werna~*ikwerna ‘squirrel’ > Anglo-Saxon ēc-weorna, Old Norse Íkorni, Old High German eihhurno, eihhorn, German Eichhhorn ‘squirrel’ || **Uralic** *ora, *ora-pa ‘squirrel’ > Finnish orava ‘squirrel’, Estonian orav, oravas id., proto-Lapp *jre^v > Norw. Lapp oar're | Erzya & Moksha Mordvin ur ‘squirrel’ || Cheremis ur ‘squirrel’ || Ziryene ur id. ||| Samoyedic: in a Samoyedic language of the Sayan region (Pallas: ‘ejus stirpis monticolis sajanensisibus’) orop ‘Sciurus striatus’ || ? **Drau.** *urutt- > Tamil uruttay, Telugu uruta ‘squirrel’.

[52] ***kuṇ̥h** ∇ ($\acute{\nabla}$) ‘small carnivore (marten, polecat, wild cat, or sim.)’ > **Kartu.** ***k**wenr- ‘marten’ > Old Georgian **კუერნა-**, Georgian **კვერნა-**, Megrelian **კვინორ-i**, Laz **კვენურ-i**, Svan **რკვენ-** ~ **კ(w)ენ-** id. || **Indo-Eur.** (attested in Balto-Slavic only) *keun-//*koun- ‘marten’ > Lithuanian **kiáuné**, **kiauné**, Latvian **caūna**, -e, Prussian **caune** id. | Slavic ***kuna** ‘marten’ > Church Slavonic **коуна** **kuna** ‘αἴλουρος, felis’, Bulgarian **куна**, Serbo-Croatian, Slovene **kúna**, Czech, Polish **kuna**, Old Russian **коуна** **kuna**, Russian (dial.) **куна** ~ **ку'на**, Ukrainian **ку'на** ‘marten’; derived Slavic ***kunica** ‘marten’ > Church Slavonic **коуница** **kunica** ‘αἴλουρος, felis’, Serbo-Croatian **куница**, Slovene **kúnica**, Polish **kunica**, Russian **ку'ница** ‘marten’ || **Ham.-Semit.**: South Cushitic: Iraqw **qaínā?**i/a ‘civet cat’ ||| ? Chadic: West Chadic: Hausa **κ'yanwà**, Pero **kándà** ‘cat’, Bole **šẓnwa** ‘wild cat’ || East Chadic: Somray **kójna** ‘cat’ ||| ? Sem. ***κ** ∇ nd ∇ r- (< ****κ** ∇ nr-?) > Arabic **قندر** (with unknown vowels) ‘beaver’ || **Altaic** ***k**_t‘**j**üränä (metathesis from ****k**_t‘**j**ünärä) ‘marten, polecat’ > Turkic ***k**_t‘**j**üreñän > Narrow Turkic ***k**_t‘**j**üzelän ‘polecat’ > Old Turkic **küzän** id., Cuman **kara kuzen** ‘polecat’, Türkmen **gößen**, Uzbek **сассик күзан** **sassiq kwzan**, Qazaq, Altay, Khakas **küzen**, Volga Tatar **көзән** **közän**, Bashqurt **kəðän** ‘polecat’, Tuva **küzen** ‘marten’ | Old Bulghar → Hungarian **görény** ‘polecat’ || Mongolic ***küreñe** > Class. Mong. **küreñe**, Halha-Mong. **хүрнэ** ‘skunk, polecat, weasel’, Kalmuck **կүրն** **kürnə**, **կүրն** ‘polecat, iltis’ ◇ The word may have denoted some small carnivore (marten, polecat, wild cat, or ichneumon; all of them live in different parts of Southwestern Asia; in modern Israel the marten is known as **נְמִיה nimiyā**).

4.2. Gatherers

They harvested (***qaRp̪** ∇ and ***zük** ∇ ; see above entries [15] and [16]) different kinds of cereals (***gaL** ∇ and ***χänt** ∇ cf. above entries [17] and [18]; ***diķ** ∇), plucked figs (***pibrE** [1], ***ʒugb** ∇), other kinds of fruit (***břiřuw** ∇ **ga**), nuts (***KuS** ∇ , ***L** ∇ **w** **ž** ∇), possibly pistachio nuts (***buť** ∇), gathered several kinds of berries (***m'** **o** **y** **ž** ∇ , ***mar** **y** **a**) and possibly peas (? ***KEr** ∇), dug out root-crops (***m'** **u** **r** **k** ∇ [-**ŋK** ∇]).

[53] ***diķ** ∇ ‘edible cereals or fruit’ > **Hamito-Semitic**: Berber ***dāk-** > Ahaggar Twareg **tadaq** (pl. **tidāyīn**) ‘grain (of cereals)’, Taitoq **tadaq** (pl.

tiðayin) ‘grain (of wheat, barley)’ ¶ The vowel *-ā- belongs to the Ham.-Sem. derivational pattern of collective nouns ||| ? Egyptian dkr ‘fruit’ (a general word for edible fruit) || **Kartu.** *dik- ‘wheat’ > Georgian diķa ‘wheat (*Triticum persicum*)’, Laz diķa ‘wheat’ || **Altaic** *diK- → diK-ktä ‘edible berries’ > Turkic *jigdä ‘edible berries (of *Elaeagnus*), the berries *Zizypha rubra*’ > Old Turkic jigdä ‘jujube tree (*Zizyphus angustifolia*) and its fruit (an edible berry)’ or ‘*Elaeagnus*’, Türkmen iğde ‘*Elaeagnus* and its berry; date fruit’, Türkmen (dial.) žigde ‘*Elaeagnus*’, Turkish iğde, Azeri iydä, Qırghız, Qaraqalpaq žıyde, Qazaq žyde, Uzbek žiyda ~ žiydä ‘*Elaeagnus* and its berries’ ||| Tungusic *zikte ‘berry’ > Ewenki jiktž id., Negidal jiktž ‘great bilberries, bilberries, whortleberries’, Orochi, Ude žiktž ‘great bilberries’ || **Drau.** *tik,k,▽ > Kurukh tīxəl ‘rice, paddy cleansed of its husk’, Malto tiqalu ‘rice’.

[54] *ʒɪzugb▽ ‘(a kind of) fig tree’ > **Ham.-Sem.**: Sem. *°✓zyb > Arabic razyab- ‘a big fig-tree’ ||| ? Egyptian dʒb ‘fig, fig-tree’ ||| Central Chadic: Glavda acúwa ‘fig tree’ || **Drau.** *cuv- ‘fig, fig tree’ > Tamil cuvi ‘white fig, *Ficus infectoria*; stone fig, *Ficus gibbosa parasitica*’, cuvalai ‘pipal, *Ficus religiosa*’, Kolami zuvi id., Malayalam cuvann-āl ‘*Ficus infectoria*’, Kannada juvvu mara id., Telugu juvvu ‘*Ficus tsiela*’, Parji ʂū meri, Gondi ʂū māṛa ‘a species of *Ficus*’ (Kannada māṛa, Parji meri, Gondi māṛa ‘tree’).

[55] ?? *b̥r̥iʃ̥ruw̥'qa ‘(a kind of) edible fruit’ > **Kartu.** *brgen or *bergwen ‘wild pear’ or ‘wild plum’ > Georgian (dial.) b(e)rgena ‘wild pear *Pyrus cicutifolia*’, Svan bargwen, bärgen ‘wild plum’ || **Indo-Eur.** *b̥r̥rūg- ‘fruit’, ‘to use (as fruit)’ > Latin frūg- (nom. frūx, gen. frūgis) ‘fruit’, Umbrian accus. pl. frif, fri ‘fruits’, Latin fruor, frui, frūctus ~ frūctus sum v. ‘have the benefit of’, frūmentum ‘corn’, Oscan fruktatiuf (*frūgetātiōnis) ‘fruit’ || Gothic brūkjan, Old High German brūhhhan, Old Saxon brūkan, Anglo-Saxon brūcan ‘make use of’, German brauchen id., ‘to need’, Gothic brūks, Old High German brūhhhi, Anglo-Saxon brūce ‘useful’ || ?? **Ham.-Sem.**: Sem.: Arb birqūq- ~ burqūq- ‘*prunum, malum Armeniacum*’ (unless ←b- Late

Greek προκόκκιον ~ πρεκόκκιον ↔ Latin *præcox*) || ? (ambiguous) **Drau.** *pir̥t̥ka (~ *pir̥t̥la) ‘green mango fruit’ > Kannada *pirika*, *prīka*, *pirka* id., Pengo, Manda *pṛīla* id., Kui *pṛīia*, Kuwi *pṛīla* ‘unripe mango fruit’ (unless akin to Sem. *'piriy- ‘fruit’).

[56] *ΚυΣΔ ‘nut’ > **Indo-Eur.** *kos(e)lo- ‘hazel’ > Latin *corulus* ‘hazel-tree’, *colurnus* ‘made of hazel-wood’ || Celtic *koslo- ‘hazel’ > Gaulish *koslo-* id. (in proper names), Old Irish, Old Welsh *coll* ‘hazel’, Cornish *col-widen* id., Old Breton *coll* ‘made of hazel-wood’ || Old High German *hasal(a)* > German *Hasel*, Anglo-Saxon *hæsel* > English *hazel*, Old Norse *hasl* ‘hazel’ || ? Old Lithuanian *kasulas* ‘Jägerspieß’ (Pokorny: ‘Jägerspieß’ als ‘Hasler’) || **Altaic** *k'usi ‘nut’ > Turkic *k_t'usik ‘nut’ > Old Turkic *qusiq* ‘pine kernel’, Altay, Quu-Kizhi, Qumanda *quzuq*, Khakas *χuzuk* ‘nut’, Teleut, Quu-Kizhi, Sagay, Koibal Turkic *quzuq* ‘cedar nut’; Turkic → Persian *qusūq* ‘pine kernel’ || | Mongolic *qusi-(gan) ‘nut’ > Class. Mong. *qusi-gan* (pl. *qosi-d*), Halha-Mong. *хүүрэ* ‘nut, walnut’; back formation: Mongolic *qusi ‘cedar’ > Class. Mong. *qusi*, Halha-Mong. *хүш* id. || | Tungusic *xusj-kta ‘acorn, nut’ > Ude *u'hikta*, Ulcha *osta*, Nanay *χosaqta* ~ *osaqta* ‘acorn’, Urmi Ewenki *usikta* ‘oak’ (< *‘acorn’), Class. Manchu *usixa* ‘nut’.

[57] *LN̥ZD (or *LN̥WZD) ‘(a kind of) nut’, ‘nut-tree\shrub’ > **Kartvelian:** Georgian *leža* ‘green walnut-shell’ || **Ham.-Sem.:** Semitic *lūðz or *lawðz- ‘almond tree’ > Hebrew לְזֵז, Canaanite → Aramaic: Jewish Aramaic, Syriac lu'z-ā, Mandaic *luza*; Aramaic → Arabic *lawz-*, Ge'ez *lawz* id., Harari *lāz* ‘groundnut’ || **Indo-Eur.** *lazd- ‘hazel-bush’ > Lithuanian *lazdà* ~ *laza* ‘stick, hazel-stick’, *lazdynas* ‘hazel-bush’, Latvian *la(g)zda*, *lazds*, *legzda*, *legzds* id., Prussian *laxde* ‘hazel-bush’ || Armenian *last* ‘raft, boat; wooden bedstead, wooden bank’ || Tosk Albanian *laj'thi* ‘hazelnut, hazel-bush’.

[58] *but̥D ‘pistachio tree\nut’ > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. *'but̥u,n̥m- id. > Hebrew pl. בַּטְנִים *bətn̥im* ‘*Pistacia terebinthus L.*’, Jewish Aramaic *but̥n-*ā, *but̥m-ā*, Syriac *beṭm-a'*ṭ-ā id., Arabic *buṭm-* ‘terebinth tree’, Ge'ez (<

Arabic?) *bət̪m~būt̪m* ‘terebinth tree’, Akkadian *buṭn-u* ‘terebinth tree\wood’, *buṭn-atu*, *buṭum-t-u*, *buṭṭutu* ‘pistachio tree\wood\nut’ || **Altaic:** Turkic *buturyāq > Old Turkic buturyāq ‘a thorn tree which is shaped like a pistachio tree and has thorns which catch the clothing’, Siberian Tatar (Tar dial.) buturyaq ‘a tree which has split and is bound round to save it from collapse’; Turkic *bitrik ‘pistachio nut’ > Old Turkic bitrik id.

[59] **mar₁y₂ṇ* ‘(mul-, black-) berries’ > **Indo-Eur.** **mor-* ‘mulberry, blackberry’ > Armenian *mor* ‘blackberry’, *mori*, *moreni* ‘blackberry bush’ || Greek μόρον ‘mulberry, blackberry’ || Latin *mōrum* id. || Old Irish nom. pl. *mēra* ‘mulberry tree’, Welsh *merwydd(en)* ‘mulberry’ || **Ham.-Sem.:** ? Egyptian *mr* ‘mulberry tree (morus tree)’ (according to Budge, supposedly attested in the Palermo Stele) ¶ The word is mentioned by Budge only and not confirmed by more reliable sources and is therefore questionable || **Kartv.** **marçg̥w-* ‘strawberry’ > Georgian *marçgv-*, Svan *basqi-*, *bäsq-* id. ¶¶ This is a compound of **mar₁y₂a* + **čṇm̥g̥w* (a root represented by Kartv. **cimq̥w-* ‘strawberry [or bilberry]’ > Georgian *cmq̥va*, Megrelian *cəm̥wa*, *cim̥wa* ‘strawberry’, Upper Bal Svan *cingga* ‘bilberry’) || **Uralic:** Finno-Ugric **marya* ‘berries’ > Finnish *marja*, Estonian *märi* id. | proto-Lapp **mōryē* id. > Norw. Lapp *muor'jē*, etc. | Erzya & Moksha Mordvin *mäř* ‘berries’ (in compounds) | Highland Cheremis *mör* ‘berry’, Eastern Cheremis *mör* & *mörö* ‘garden strawberries’ || Ob-Ugric **mṇ:r-* > proto-Vogul **märf-* > Middle Lozva Vogul *moåri*, North. Vogul *må:ri* ‘stalk of berries’, *moriŋ/p pil* ‘bunchy berries’; proto-Ostyak **murəp* ‘bunch of berries’ > Teryugan Ostyak *murəp* id., etc. || **Altaic** (according to A. Dybo) **merü* > Turkic **mjbürü* ‘strawberry’ > Quba Azeri *müri* ‘strawberry’ || Korean *m̥ru*, Southwestern Korean *morä* ‘wild grapes’.

[60] **m̥o₁y₂ñṇ* ‘(a kind of) berry’ > **Uralic:** Finno-Ugric **možṇ* ‘berries of some shrub’ > Cheremis *muδъ* & *тобо* ‘bilberries’ | Permian **moíi* ‘berry, stone of a fruit’ > Votyak *мұльбы* *muít* ‘stone of a fruit’, Votyak (dial.) *muít* & *moíz* ‘berry, nut’, Ziryene *ńur-moí* ‘cranberries’ (*ńur* ‘swamp’), *moí* ‘button, stone of a fruit’, Yazvian *tər-'muíi* ‘cranberries’ ||

proto-Ostyak *w̥ir-mǽi ‘red-currant’ (*w̥ir ‘blood’) > Teryugan Ostyak wirmǽf, etc. || Hungarian mæggy ‘morello cherry (*Prunus cerasus*)’ || **Altaic:** Tungusic *mile-kte ~ (?) *mol'i'-kte ‘ashberry’ > Zeya Ewenki molikta, Ewenki (dial.) mikts, Negidal miktan, Ulcha, Orok miłzktz, Orok mikts ~ mitts id. || ?? **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. ȝ*√m̥sm̥s > Arabic mišmiš-[registered in Kamus] ‘a kind of fruit’ (Freytag: ‘fructus nomen multum refrigerantis et debilitantis stomachum’), [Kamus] ‘the plum ȝiğāṣ-un’, ‘apricot’ || ?? **Indo-Eur.** *mǽl- ‘apple’ > Latin mālum || Greek μῆλον, Doric Greek μᾶλον || Albanian mollë id. ◇ If the IE cognate is valid, the Nostr. reconstruction may be *moyə̄v (where *y is responsible for the length of the IE vowel, but was lost due to a law ruling out *y before sonants). The original *o may have been palatalized in Ob-Ugric, Hungarian (and Tungusic?) due to the influence of this *y.

[61] *KERV ‘fruit of a leguminous plant’ or sim. > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. *k̥r̥v̥θ- > Syr k̥erat̥t̥-ā ‘fruit of the locust or carob tree’, Arab قرظ qarað- ‘fruit of acacia’ ||| East Chadic: Kwang k̥ir̥t̥, Kera k̥ir̥í, Jegu g̥ir̥(k) ‘bean(s)’ || **Indo-Eur.** *k̥iker- ‘pea(s)’ > Armenian sisēr̥n ‘chick-pea’ || Greek κριός id. || L cicer ‘chick-pea’ ◇ Sem. *-θ- may go back to the second part of a nominal compound.

[62] *m̥u'r̥k̥v̥(-ŋ̥k̥v̥) ‘root, root-crops, edible roots’, (→ ?) ‘sinew’ > **Kartu.** *m̥ur̥k̥- > Georgian mur̥k̥-i ‘stump of cabbage’ || **Indo-Eur.** *mr̥k̥- (~ *br̥k̥-) ‘edible roots, carrot’ > Anglo-Saxon more, moru ‘edible root, carrot, parsnip’, Old High German mor(a)ha, German Mohrrübe, Möhre ‘carrot’ || proto-Slavic *mr̥k̥t̥ / *mr̥k̥v̥- ‘carrot’ > Serbo-Croatian mr̥kva, Slovene mr̥kev, mr̥kva, Old Czech mr̥kev, Czech mr̥kva, Old Russian morkovъ, morkva, Russian мор'ковъ | ? Baltic *burkū > Lithuanian burkūnas id., Latvian burķans id., ‘Aetusa cynapium’ || Greek [Hesychius] βράκανα ‘wild vegetables’ || **Ham.-Sem.:** East Cushitic *mur̥k̥- ‘tendon, nerve’ > Oromo morg-aya id., Konso murq-a ‘tip of the nose’, Gidole mørk̥-a ‘bone of nose, kneecap, soft part of ensete’, Somali muruq- ‘muscle’, Burji morgánka míča ‘ankle’, Yaku morž-i? ‘sinew of neck’ || **Drau.** *murv̥ŋ̥k̥- > Tamil muruṇkai ‘Moringa

pterygosperma, Indian horse-radish tree', Kannada *nugga*, *nuggi*, Tulu *nurige*, *nurge*, Telugu *munaga*, Parji *munga*, *mul̥ga*, Gondi (dial.) *mul̥ē*, *mungē* id. Konda *munga maram*, *muluŋa mara* id. (*mara*, *maram* 'tree'), Malayalam *muriṇṇa* '*Hyperanthera moringa*', Indian horse-radish', Kurukh *mungā* 'a shrub, the fruits & leaves of which are eaten as curry'; Drav. → Old Indian *murangi-*, *murungi-* '*Moringa pterygosperma*' || **Altaic:** Tungusic *^omu'nn̥i 'tendon' > Ewenki *muŋi* 盟 'tendon (at the end of a muscle), muscle' ◇ The same Nostr. word is used both for the root and the sinew, which is explained by their common technical functioning as ropes.

5. Food

Many of the items of the Nostratic menu have been already mentioned in different contexts, e.g. the cereals they harvested (nos. [15]–[18] and [53]). They knew how to *pound* (**mol̥l̥V*) grains and to *bake [on hot stones]* (**ṛäPHi*) a sort of flat unleavened *bread* (**qUb|p̥zV*). They ate *meat* (*^{r̥}*omša*) of several animals — mainly artiodactyls (see above nos. [5], [36]–[47], [49]) and knew how to appreciate the taste of *marrow and brain* (**ayŋo*), *liver* (**mag̥i,za*), other *pluck* (**g̥uŋzV*) and *soft parts of the animal's body* (**ń'ałKU*). They ate *eggs* (**muňa[-tl̥dV]*, ?**ṛ'ało'w̥h|x i*) and several kinds of *fish* (**KołV*, **doTgiHU*, **mEnjñi*). One cannot be sure that they ate *caviar*, but certainly *hard roe* (**čüR*, **k̥ür̥w̥V* or **k̥ür̥w̥E*) was known to them. They ate *root-crops* (**m̥u'rk̥V[-ŋK̥V]* — see above [62]), *nuts* (**KuS*, **L̥v̥w̥žV* 'nuts', **bułV* 'pistachio' — see [56] — [58]), *berries* (**mar̥y*, **mołyžV* — see [59]–[60]), enjoyed the taste of *figs* (**?ibrE* [1]) and other *fruit* (?**b̥i'ř'uw'qa* [55]). Their 'cuisine nostratique' included *tasty beverage* (**mayžV* [21]) and *honey* (**madu*).

[63] **mol̥l̥V* 'to pound, gnaw/smash into pieces' > **Indo-Eur.** **mel-*, **mełh-* 'to grind, pound' > Hittite *mall(a)-* v. mill, grind' ||| Armenian *malem* 'I break into pieces' ||| Greek μύλη 'mill' ||| Albanian *mjełl* 'flour', *bluanj* (< **mlā-*) v. 'grind' ||| Latin *mol-ō*, -ěre v. 'grind' ||| Old Irish *melim* 'I grind' ||| Gothic, Old High German *malan*, German *mahlen*, Old Norse *mala* 'to mill', Old High German *muljan* 'to break into small pieces' ||| Lithuanian *málti* 'to mill' | Slavic **mel-ti* 'to grind, mill' > Old

Church Slavonic **МЛѢТІ** mlěti (1 sg. pres. meljǫ), Bulgarian 'меля', Serbo-Croatian mlěti / mělјem, Slovene mléti, Czech mléti ~ mlíti, Polish mleć / mielę, Old Russian **МОЛОТН**, Russian молоть / молю || Tocharian A malywät 'you (sg.) are pressing', Tocharian B melye 'they trample' || ? Old Indian mr̥ṇāti 'crushes, grinds' (coalescence with Indo-Eur. *mer- 'to rub') || **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. *√mll 'crush, squeeze (e.g. for husking the grain)' > Middle Hebrew, Jewish Aramaic, Mandaic √mll v. 'crush, squeeze, rub ears for husking the grain', Biblical Hebrew מְלִכְתָּה malītā, Jewish Aramaic מְלִכְתָּא malītā-tā 'Reibähren (noch milchige Ähren, deren Körner man ausreibt)', Middle Hebrew מְלִיכָה malīcā 'ripe ear', Arabic √mll (ll form) 'presser, activer' || **Uralic** *mōlīv- 'to crumble, break into pieces', 'a crumble' > proto-Lapp *mōlīv- > Norw. Lapp moallio 'crumb, little, bit, piece, morsel', moallâni- ~ mqllâni- v. intr. 'crumble away' || | Samoyedic *məlīv- v. 'break' > Tundra Nenets мǎлъя- маја- ~ мǎлъе- v. 'break, smash'. Taz Sölkup mala- v. 'gnaw', Tîm Sölkup 1 sg. aor. malâab id., Kamassian boł-dâiám ~ buł-dâiám v. tr. 'break', Koibal блаламъ 'I gnaw', Mator балъямъ id. || **Altaiic** *mōlīv- > Mongolic *mōlži- (< *mōl-di-) 'to gnaw into pieces' > Middle Moghol mölži-, Class. Mong. mölži-, Halha mölži-, Kalmuck mölži- 'to gnaw'.

[64] *ʔäPHi 'to bake, prepare food on hot stones' > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. *√ʔpy v. 'bake' > Ugaritic, Old Aramaic √ʔpy|w, Hebrew √ʔpy|w (perfect הַפְּנֵה ʔäphē) v. 'bake', Phoenician, Official Aramaic √ʔpy id. (and/or 'cook'), Jewish Aramaic אֲפִי √ʔpy (pf. אֲפָאʔ ʔäfāʔ) v. 'bake', Syriac √ʔp (perfect ʔē'pā) v. 'bake, cook', Arabic مِيفَن mīfā-n 'bake-oven', Akkadian √ʔpy/w (inf. əpū) v. 'bake' || | Chadic: West Chadic: Pero ápò v. 'bake' || ? **Indo-Eur.:** *ʔHepH- (unless it is *sepH-) v. 'cook' > Armenian əpʰe-m id. || Greek ἔψω id. (so-present), part. ἔψθος 'baked' || **Altaiic:** Turkic *äp'- v. 'bake (?)' in Old Turkic äp-mäk ~ äpäk 'bread', Azeri äppäk, (dial.) äpmäk id., Volga Tatar äpäy id. || **Drau.** *avi- v. 'be boiled, cooked' > Tamil avi id., avay v. 'cook, boil', Malayalam aviyuka v. 'boil on fire, be digested'.

[65] *qUbž́N (< *qUpž́N?) ‘food made of ground cereals’, ‘flour’ (> ‘bread’) > **Kartvelian** *qweza- ‘loaf’ > Old Georgian queza-*ɣ* ‘loaf of bread’, Megrelian *χozo* ‘oval loaf of cooked dough’, *χozo-ķwari* ‘ceremonial cone-formed bread baked at the first Monday of Lent (with a wooden stick in it)’ (Megrelian *ķwari* is ‘small loaf of bread’) || | **Ham.-Sem.**: Sem. *χubz- ‘bread’ > Arabic *χubz-* ‘bread’, *χubzat-* ‘a bread baked in ashes’, ✓*χbz* (past *χabaza*, present-future *-χbiz-*) v. ‘make bread’, Eastern Jibbali E *χɔz* v. ‘bake’ (*-b- > zero is regular), Mehri, Harsusi ✓*χbz* id., Ge’ez ✓*χbz* id. ‘bake’, *χabz* ‘bread’, *χabast* (pl. *χabāwəz*) ‘bread’ || | ? **Altaiic**: Tungusic *upa ‘flour; flat bread’ > Solon *ψօօ:* ‘bread’, Negidal, Naikhin Nanay *օpa*, Ude, Bikin Nanay *օpa* ~ *ufa*, Kur-Urmi Nanay *օfa*, Ude *ufa*, Ulcha *upa* ‘flour’, Orochi *upa* id., ‘flat bread’, Orok *upa* ‘flour, flat bread, bread’, Class. Manchu *ufa* ‘wheat-flour, rice-flour’, Sibe Manchu *?ufa* ‘flour, meal’, Jurchen *ufa* ‘flour’ ¶¶ The Tungusic cognate is valid only if there is a way of explaining the loss of *ž in Tungusic (or the change *-bž- > Tungusic *-p).

[66] *?^romša ‘meat’ > **Uralic** *omša ‘flesh, meat’ > proto-Lappish *jńćē ‘flesh’ > Norw. Lapp *oažiže*, Kildin Lapp *ččužn:ič*, Ter Lapp *ččužn:iče* id. || | Samoyedic *bmså ‘meat’ > Tundra Nenets *ŋamza*, Obdorsk dial. *ŋamča*, Forest Nenets *ŋams:ča*, Nganasan *ŋzmsu*, Somatu Enets *uča*, Bay Nenets *ossa* ‘meat’, Taigi *aŋca* ‘flesh\meat’, Mator *aŋca* id., ‘body’, Taz Sölqup *apst* ‘food’ || | **Ham.-Sem.**: ? Sem.: Arabic *?amīṣ-*, *?amīṣ-* ‘marinaded raw meat; veal jelly’ ¶ The emphatization of the final consonant is not yet clear || | Egyptian *sms* ‘piece of beef’ (Illich-Svitych: partial reduplication of **ʒms*?) || | **Indo-Eur.** *mēms- ‘meat’ (< **?mēms- [reduplicated stem]) > Old Indian *mām'sa-*, *'mās* ‘meat’ || Armenian *mis* id. || Albanian (dial.) *mish* id. || Gothic *mimz* id. || Prussian *mensā*, Low Lithuanian *meisa* (Fraenkel: < **mensā*), Latvian *mīesa* || Slavic **męso* > Old Church Slavonic **M&A;CO** *męso*, Serbo-Croatian *měso*, Polish *mięso*, Russian *mięso* id. || Latin *membrum* ‘limb’ (< **mēms-ro-*) || Old Irish *mír* ‘piece’ (< ‘piece of meat’) (< **mēms-ro-*) ¶ The loss of the laryngeal *? in the initial clusters [*? + consonant] is regular (e.g., *?*s-* > **s* in **es-ti* ‘est’ — **s-onti* ‘sunt’).

[67] ***g̚'v̚iž-** ‘intestines, pluck (as food)’ > **Kartvelian** ***q̚w̚iž-** ‘liver’ > Old Georgian **ყვიჳლ-**, Georgian **ყვიჳლ-**, Megrelian ***gv̚ižil-** → Georgian **გვიჳლ-** ‘of dark-violet colour’, Megrelian **i-gv̚ižin-an-s** ‘has unhealthy yellow complexion’ (‘выглядит желто, болезненно’), Svan **զվիշե**, **զւշե** ‘liver’ || **Indo-European** ***kew̚s-/kūs-** ≈ ‘intestines, abdomen’ > Old Indian **कोश्ठा-** ‘abdomen’ || Greek **κύστις**, **-εως** ‘bladder’ || Welsh **cwthr** ‘anus, rectum’ (< **kusd̚ro-**) || Slavic ***k+š-ька** ‘gut’ > Russian **киш'ка**, Ukrainian **'киш'ка**, Polish **kiszka** ‘gut’ || **Altaic**: Tungusic ***չչյա-** > Okhotsk Lamut **յյա-** v. ‘disembowel (a bear)’, **յյամցւն**, Ola Lamut **յյիմցւն**, Negidal **յյո-նս** ‘pluck of a bear’ || ?**ப Dravidian** ***kuč-** ‘intestines’ > Tamil **குடார்**, **குடால்** ‘bowels, intestines, entrails’, Malayalam **കുടാര്**, **കുടാല്** ‘bowels’, Kota **koṛñ**, Toda **kw̚t̚r** ‘small intestine’, Gondi **kuṇḍalī** ‘a stomach of ruminants’.

[68] ***?ayŋo** ‘marrow, brain, soft fat of animals’ (‘to smear, anoint’) > ?? **Indo-Eur.:** Narrow Indo-European ***ongʷ-** ‘to smear’, ***ongʷ-en-~*ŋgʷ-en-** ‘fat, grease’ > Old Indian **añj-**, **a'nakti** (3 pl. **añ'janti**, part. pass. **ak'ta**) v. ‘smear, anoint’, **'ājyam** ‘melted or clarified butter (used for oblations, for pouring into the holy fire at the sacrifice, and for anointing anything sacrificed or offered)’ (< **ā** + **ajya** < ***ngʷyo-**) || Armenian **աւանեմ** ‘I smear’ || Latin **unguō / unctus** v. ‘smear’, Umbrian **umtu** ‘unguento’ || Prussian **anctan**, **ancṭe** ‘butter’ || **Ham.-Sem.:** Semitic: Ge'ez **የንግዬ** ‘marrow, the soft fat of animals’, Tigre **የንግድዎ**, Tigray **የንግድና**, Amharic **አንጋዥ** ‘marrow’ || | ?Cushitic ***hangʷl-** ‘brain’ > East Cushitic ***hangul-** ‘brain’ > Saho **hangal**, pl. **hangul** id., Afar **hangal** ‘brains’, Borana Oromo **engu~engō** id., as well as probably Dahalo **fāni** ‘head’ | Agaw → Amharic **angol** ‘brains’ and Tigre **hangal** **hangel** (pl. **hanāgəl** **hanagəl**) → Bilin **hangʷəl** (pl. **hanāgʷəl**) ‘brains’; Awngi **angʷal** id. may be either a back borrowing from Ethiosemitic or an inherited Cushitic word | ?Cushitic → Mbugu **angálo** || | **Omotic:** East Omoto: Kachama **زنکا** ‘head’ || | Central Chadic: Chibak **ڙانگارا**, Margi **انجادا** ‘brain’, Mboku **ڦانگا**, Bana **ڦانگا** ‘head’ || | **Uralic** ***ayŋe** (or ***ayŋo**, as proposed by Collinder) > Finnish **aivo(t)** ‘brain, temple, temporal (bone)’, Estonian **aju** ‘brain’, proto-Lappish ***vōjŋ̚s** ‘brain’ > Norw. Lapp **vuoīnâš-** pl. **vuoīgnâšâk**, Lule-Lapp **vuoīnām** ~

սաօւղամ | proto-Mordvin *օյշə > Moksha-Mordvin үй սү ‘marrow, brain’ || ? Hungarian əgy ‘brain, marrow’ || ? **Altaic**: Turkic *äŋ ‘cheek’ > Old Turkic äŋ id., Old Osman eŋ id., Azeri äŋj ‘the sides of the lower jaw’, etc.

[69] *mag̚i,za ‘liver’ > **Ham.-Sem.**: Egyptian myz.t ‘liver (?)’ > Demotic Egyptian myš ‘liver’ > Old Coptic μαογc maus id. ||| North Omonic *mayz- ‘liver’ > Bench may ‘heart, liver’, She may ‘liver’, Chara mayya, Badditu, Kachama mayye, Gidicho māyye, Ganjula, Zayse, Zergulla maye, Male māyzi, mayz, Basketo māyz, Doka mayz ‘liver’ ¶¶ The origin of *y instead of the expected guttural is not clear || **Uralic** *maksa ‘liver’ > Finnish maksa, Estonian maks | proto-Lappish *mōksē > South. Lapp müöksie, Ume-Lapp müeksē, Vefsen Lapp müök’si | Erzya-Mordvin makso, Moksha-Mordvin макса maksə | proto-Cheremis *moks > Cheremis: Lowland and Highland Cheremis мокш mokš, Malmizh Cheremis moks | proto-Permian *musk- > Ziryene mus / musk-, Votyak мус mus || proto-Ob-Ugric *m̚yəθ > proto-Vogul *m̚yət / māyt- > Tavda Vogul mayat, Northern Vogul māyət; proto-Ostyak *muṣət > Vakh Ostyak muṣəl, etc. | Hungarian máj id. ||| Samoyedic *mítъ id. > Tundra Nenets мыд, Obdorsk dial. m̚d ~ mūd, Forest Nenets m̚t'; Nganasan 'mitə; Enets muro ~ mudə; Taz Sölqup m̚t̚t, Tim Sölqup m̚d̚; Kamassian mit̚, Koibal мёттъ.

[70] *n̚'a'KU ‘soft parts of the animal’s body (liver, marrow, suet)’ > **Ham.-Sem.**: Sem. *✓n̚ky/w > Arabic niqy- ‘marrow’, naqw- ‘bone of the arm, one full of marrow’, ✓n̚qw/y v. ‘extract marrow from a bone’ || **Indo-Eur.** *yekʷ-ṛ(t-) / gen. *yekʷ-'n-es ‘liver’ > Old Indian 'yakṛt, gen. yak'nah̚, Persian ȝigār || Greek ἡπαρ / -ατος || Latin iecur / iecinoris || Baltic *yeknā > Lithuanian (j)ẽknos, (j)ãknos, Old Lith. jeknas, Latvian pl. aknas, (dial.) jẽ knas, Prussian iagno || **Uralic**: Finno-Ugric *°ńok̚w⁻V(-̚V) > Ob-Ugric *ńōyəž ‘meat’ > proto-Vogul *ńāyə́- > Tavda Vogul ńawí, Sosva Vogul ńɔwí, etc.; proto-Ostyak *ńoγ̚t id. > Vakh Ostyak ńoγ̚t, etc. || **Altaic**: Turkic *yakṛt ‘suet, fat (of an animal)’ > Old Turkic yaqr̚t ‘fat, suet’ (meaning influenced by Turkic үāy ‘fat’), Old Uighur yaqr̚t ašlıylar ‘fat\suet eaters’.

[71] *muñā(-t|d^N) ‘egg’ > **Uralic** *muñā ‘egg, testicle’ > Finnish, Estonian *munä* id. | proto-Lappish *monē > Norw. Lapp mānnē ‘egg’ | Erzya & Moksha Mordvin *mōna* ‘testicle’ | Highland Cheremis мыны тənə, Lowland Cheremis *muno* ‘egg’, Birsk Cheremis *muno* id., ‘testicle’ || Ob-Ugric *mōñ ‘testicle’ > proto-Vogul *māñ id. > Tavda & Lower Lozva Vogul man id.; proto-Ostyak *mōñ ‘penis’ > Vakh Ostyak *mōñ* id. | Hungarian (dial.) *mony* ‘egg, testicle’ || Samoyedic *m̥nā ‘egg’ > Nganasan тənu, Enets *mōna*, Kamassian *mun'aj* ~ *mun'uji* ‘egg’, Koibal мүнү ‘egg’, Taz Sölqup *manf* ‘penis’ || **Ham.-Sem.**: Chadic: possibly Musgu *mūn̩* ‘testicles’ (after Rohlf’s record of 1856), ? Girvidig Musgu *mōhom* id. || **Drau.** *muñt- ~ *muñt- ‘egg’ > Tamil *muñtaij* ~ *muñtai* ‘egg’, Malayalam *muñta*, *moñta*, Kota *moñ*, Toda *muñy*, Kannada, Tulu *moñte* id., Kodagu *muñte* id., ‘testis’ || **Indo-Eur.** *^omond^h-> Slavic *mōd-o ‘testicle’ (dual *mōd-ě) > Church Slavonic **мъдо** *mōdo*, Bulgarian **мѫ́до** (*mōd'* do) (new orthography *mъdo*), Serbo-Croatian *múdo*, Slovene *módo*, Old Czech *múd*, Czech *moud*, Old Polish *mądo*, *mędo*, Polish arch. *mądo*, Old Russian **мъдъ** *mudo* (dual **мъдѣ** *mudě*), Russian (dial.) *му'до* (old dual *му'де*), Ukrainian 'мудо' id.

[72] ? *?[?]a^oñ^h|x i or *?[?]uñ^h|x i ‘egg’ (or ‘white of egg’) > **Ham.-Sem.** *[?]awñ- > Syro-Lebanese Arabic حُنْجَى *rawñ-* ~ حُنْجَى *rāñ-* ‘white of egg’ || **Indo-Eur.**: Narrow IE *^ou(y)o- ‘egg’ > Greek: Attic ὁόν (< *óuuy-om), Aeolic ώιον, Doric ώεον ‘egg’ || ? Old Persian *xāya* ‘egg’, ? Avestan *ər-āvaya-* ‘entmannet’ (if < **ara-āvaya-* ‘without testicles’) || Welsh *wy*, Old Cornish *uwy* ‘egg’ || Armenian չ (gen. չուց) ‘egg’ || Latin *ōvum* || proto-Germanic *ayya-m > Gothic *addya (reconstructible from Crimean Gothic *ad̥a*), Old High German *eī*, German *Ei*, Old Scandinavian *egg* (whence English *egg*) || Slavic *aje id., (diminutive) *ajče id. > Serbo-Croatian *jáje*, Low Lusatian *jajo*, Polish *jaje*, Ukrainian (dial.) *айо* ‘egg’; Old Church Slavonic **аицє** *ajče*, Bulgarian *яй'це*, (dial.) *ай'це*, Polish (arch. and dial.) *jajce*, *jajco*, Old Russian **яицє** *jaice* id., Serbo-Croatian *jájce* id. (dimin.), Slovene *jájce*, Czech *vějce*, Russian *яй'цо* ‘egg, testiculum’ || **Altaic**: Old Japanese *u* ‘egg’ (Starostin, pers. comm., 1976).

[73] ***Kol**Δ ‘(large) fish’ > **Ham.-Sem.**: East Cushitic: Afar kúllum, Somali kallūn ‘fish’, kallūm- ‘to catch fish’ ||| Chadic: Hausa kúlmá ‘(a kind of) large fish’ ||| ? Sem.: Jibbali (according to B. Thomas) kāl, Mehri (Thomas) kēll ‘whale’ || | **Uralic** *kala ‘fish’ > Finnish, Estonian kala | proto-Lappish *kōlē > Norw. Lapp guolle | Erzya & Moksha Mordvin kal | Cheremis kol ||| Ob-Ugric *kūl > proto-Vogul *kūl > Tavda Vogul kōl, Northern Vogul xūl; proto-Ostyak *kul > Vakh Ostyak kul, etc. | Hungarian hal ||| Samoyedic *kålā > Tundra Nenets халя, Obdorsk dial. хái·e, Forest Nenets kāč:ää, Nganasan kol†, Somatu Enets kare, Bay Enets kare, Taz Sölqup qzlt, Kamassian k‘ōłä, Koibal кола, Mator келе || | **Altaic** *k’olΔ ‘fish’ > Mong. *qoli-sun ‘fish-skin’ > Class. Mong. qolisun, Halha холис(он) ||| Tungusic *kol-sa ‘fish’ > Ewenki ollo, Lamut olrъ, Negidal olo, Orochi okto, Ude oloho, Ulcha xolto(n-), Nanay xolto |||| [2] (a loanword?) Mong. *qalimu ‘whale’ > Class. Mong. qalimu, Halha халим ‘whale’; Mong. → (possibly) Tungusic *kalima ‘whale’ > Ewenki kalim ‘whale’, Ayan Ewenki kalim id., ‘ходовая рыба (shoals of fish moving into the rivers for spawning and caught by fishers)’, Lamut qalim, Negidal kalim, Orochi kalima ~ kālma, Ude kalima, Ulcha qalma, Orok, Nanay qalima, Class. Manchu qalimu ‘whale’ || | **IE** *kʷołal- ‘(a kind of) large fish’ > Khotan Saka, Young Avestan kāra, Sogdian krw kpy ‘a monster fish’ || Germanic *xʷalaz ~ *xʷaliz ‘whale’ > Old Norse hvalr, Anglo-Saxon hwæl, English whale, Old High German wal, German Wal-fisch; Old High German *hʷalis > Middle High German wels > German Wels ‘sheat-fish, Silurus’, Germanic *xʷalirōn id. > Old High German hwelira || Prussian kalis ‘sheat-fish’ ||| ?? A possible compound *Hs-kʷal- may be represented by Greek [Hesychius] ἕσπαλος ‘fish’ and Latin squalus ‘(a kind of) large fish, Meersaugfisch?’ || | **Braj.** *koll- ‘(a kind of) fish’ > Malayalam kolli, Tulu koleji id. ◇ The vowel *a (for the expected *o) in Uralic is obscure.

[74] *doTgiHU ‘fish’ > **Indo-Eur.**: NaIE *dʰgʰbū- ‘fish’ > Greek ἡθύς (< *gʰdʰbū- — metathesis from *dʰgʰbū-) ||| Lithuanian žuvīs, Latvian zivs, (dial.) zuvs, with a *k-suffix: Prussian suckis, acc. pl. suckans || Armenian չուկր ¶ According to many scholars, the initial չ- in չուկր is of

prosthetic origin; according to Frisk, Armenian -kn is a suffix || **Ham.-Sem.**: Sem. *'dag- or *da'wag- ‘fish’ > Hebrew דָג 'dāg, Ugaritic dg ‘fish’; Middle Hebrew -dūg- v. ‘fish’, Biblical Hebrew דָגָה daw'wāg ‘fisher’ || **Uralic** *totke ‘a fish of the genus *Cyprinus*’ > Estonian tõtkes ‘Schleie (линь), *Cyprinus tinca*’, Finnish totke (in the toponym Tötkijärvi) | Erzya Mordvin tutko, Moksha Mordvin түткә tutkə ‘*Cyprinus tinca*’ | Highland Cheremis tatъ, Malmyzh Cheremis toto id. || Tavda Vogul тাখт id. ↓ takt-köl id. or ‘*Tinca vulgaris*’ | Hungarian tat-hal ‘a worthless fish; *Cyprinus tinca*, *Tinca vulgaris*’ ||| Samoyedic: Taz Sölqup tutt ‘*Cyprinus carassius*’, Turukhan Sölqup tüt̄, Ketj Sölqup tutto, Tim Sölqup tutä id. || **Altaic** *dögk̑i ‘fish’ > Tungusic *zoglyi ‘a species of fish (*Salmo lenoc* or sim.)’ > Nanay չօր, Ude չյի-սօ, Negidal յոյո ‘*Salmo lenoc*’, Negidal յոյոլան ‘golyan (sp. of fish)’ ||| Mong. *зига-сан ‘fish’ > Middle Mongolian җигасун, Class. Mong. җигасун, Halha-Mong. җагас, Kalmuck заγəсəн, Dongxiang ڇاڳاسون, Dagur ڇاڳ، Shira-Yugur ڇاڳاسان, Monguor ڇڃڳاڻڻ ||| proto-Japanese *(d)īwuá ‘fish’ > Old Japanese iwo, Japanese dialects: Tokyo いわ, Kagoshima いわ, Ryukyu dialects: Shuri いyu, Nakasuji いyu, Hateruma いyu, Yonakuni いyu.

[75] *mEn|i ‘(a kind of) fish’ > **Indo-Eur.** *m̥ni- ‘(a kind of) fish’ > Greek μαίνη ‘a small sea-fish, which, like our herring, was salted’ (→ Latin maena id.) → μαίνε ‘sprat’ || Slavic *тьнь ‘burbot, Lota lota’ > Serbo-Croatian (dial.) mǎnj, Czech meň, Old Russian МЕНЬ menь, Russian мень id. | ?? Baltic (der.): Lithuanian ménkė ‘cod’ (unless a fem. form of the adj. mēnkas ‘poor, small’), Latvian mēñcā, mēñce ‘cod’ || ? Gmc (der.): Old High German muniwa, Anglo-Saxon myne > English minnow ‘*Phoxinus*’ || **Drav.** *mīn̥. ‘fish’ > Tamil மின், Malayalam, Kannada ಮಿನ್, Kota, Toda, Gadba, Gondi, Konda మిన్, Kodagu ಮಿನ್, Tulu ಮಿನ್, Telugu మిను, Parji మిని, Pengo, Manda min, Kui, Kuwi ಮಿನು, Malto mínu; Drav. → Old Indian mīna- id. || ?? **Uralic:** Finno-Ugric *mäNv > Skolt Lapp: Paatsjöki dial. māññi‘, Suonikylä dial. māñe’k ‘*Coregonus, lavaretus* (big white-fish)’.

[76] ***p|pay**Δ ‘(a kind of) fish’ > ? **Indo-Eur.** *peysk(o)-/*pisk- ‘fish’ > Latin *piscis* || Gothic *fisks*, Old Norse *fiskr*, Old High German, Anglo-Saxon *fisc*, German *Fisch*, English *fish* || Old Irish *īasc* (< *peyskos) (/ gen. ēisc) ‘fish’ || Slavic **pisk-arjь~pisk-orjь* > Russian *пи'скарь* (modern orthography: *пескарь*) ‘gudgeon’, Serbo-Croatian *pǐskor* ‘*muræna*’, Slovene *píškur* ‘lampern (*Lampetra*)’, Czech *pískoř*, Polish *pískorz*, High Lusatian *pískor* ‘loach (*Misgurnus*)’ || ? **Uralic** **pay*Δ ‘(a species of) fish’ > ? Votyak *paya* ‘bream (*Abramis*)’ || ? Tavda Vogul *pail*, *payil* ‘*Carassius*’ || | ? Samoyedic: Nen *paja*, *paiha* ‘*Salmo peljet* (a fish)’, Tundra Nenets *pāyxā* ‘сырок, пелядь (a kind of *Salmonidae*)’, Bay Enets *fæħħa* ‘*Salmo peljet*’, Nganasan *faʔūka* ‘Muksun’ (a fish) || **Drav.** **payy-* ‘(a kind of) fish’ > Malayalam *payyatti* ‘a fish’, Tulu *paiyya* ‘a kind of fish’.

[77] ***tüR**Δ ‘hard-roe’ > **Uralic** **tü'r*Δ > Samoyedic **tirämä* ~ **türämä* ‘hard-roe’ > Tundra Nenets *тиреbя*, Forest Nenets *tiɬɬimmeɛɛ*, Nganasan *ti'rimi*, *čirim*, Somatu Enets *tiɬē*, Bay Enets *ti're*, *čire*, *čiri*, Taz Sölqup *tir*, Tïm Sölqup *tē're'b_*, Kamassian *t'ürme*, Koibal *турмэ*, Taigi *türmjä*, Mator *türma*, *турмэ*, Karagas *dúrmjä* || **Altaic** **tüR'i* ‘hard-roe’ > Mong. **türi-sün* > Class. Mong. *türi-sün*, Halha *түрс*, Kalmuck *türsŋ*, Buryat *түрьхэ(н)* id. || | Tungusic **tilure-kse* id. > Ewenki *tirə-kəz* ~ *tirəkəz* ~ *tirəhəz*, Solon, Ulcha *tursə*, ? Class. Manchu *cerguwe* ~ *cerhuwe*.

[78] ***k'ürw**Δ or ***k'urw**E ‘hard roe, spawn’ > **Indo-Eur.** **krek-* ‘fish eggs, frog spawn’ > Old Norse *hrøgn*, Old High German (*h*)*rogan*, *rogen*, German *Rogen*, Middle English *row*, English *roe* || Lithuanian *kurkulaĩ*, Latvian *kurķulis* ‘frog spawn’ || Slavic **krekъ* ~ **krékъ* ~ **krěkъ* ‘frog spawn’ > Slovene *krék*, *žabo-kréčina*, *krák*, Old Polish *krzék*, Russian (dial.) *кряк*, *крек*, *кряк* id.; in Slavic there is contamination with the onomatopoetic imitation of croaking, whence the unexpected variations in the form || **Altaic**: Azeri *kürü* ‘hard-roe’ || | Tungusic **xurbe* ‘to spawn’ > Ewenki *irbə* ‘spawning, spawn’, Ulcha *xulbi-*, Nanay *xurbə-* ~ *xurbu-* v. ‘spawn’ || | ? **Kartv.**: Georgian *kvirita* ‘hard roe,

soft roe', kviriti 'spawn of fish/frogs' ¶ The lack of glottality in the initial consonant is irregular.

[79] ***madu** 'honey' > **Indo-Eur.** *med^hu- 'honey' > Old Indian madhu- 'honey, mead', Avestan māθu- 'wine made of berries' || Greek μέθυ 'wine' || Old Irish mid (gen. mēðo), Cornish mēdd, Breton mēz 'mead' || Old Norse mjøðr, Anglo-Saxon mēdo, English mead, Old High German mētu, German Mēt 'mead' || Lithuanian medus, Prussian meddo 'honey', Latvian mēdus id., 'mead' | Slavic *medъ 'honey' > Old Church Slavonic medъ, Bulgarian, Ukrainian мēд, Czech, Slovak mēd id., Serbo-Croatian mēđ, Polish miód, R мёд id., 'mead'; the ancient root-final *u is preserved as *v in derived and compound words (as Church Slavonic medvъпъ, Russian мёд'вяный 'made of honey', Slavic *medvědъ 'bear' ['honey-eater'], etc.) || Tocharian B mit 'honey' || **Drau.** *mat̪. 'honey, sweetness' > Tamil mat̪tu 'honey, toddy, sweet juice', Malayalam mat̪u 'sweetness, honey', mat̪tu 'nectar', Tulu mitti 'sweetness' || **Ham.-Sem.:** East Chadic: Mokilko māddé 'bee, honey' ||| Omotic *mat̪/t̪/č̪- 'bee, honey' > Shinasha mač'ça 'honey', Kaffa māṭo 'bee', Mocha maṭi 'bee, wasp', Anfilla maččo ~ maṣṣo, Zayse, Dache mačč 'bee', Gamu macci, Wolayta matta, Chara meca id.

6. Technological activities

The information provided by the language is both rich and very poor. On one hand, we know two dozens of words for 'cutting', but on the other hand, we have no idea about the original semantic difference between them. The precious information about different ways, directions and aims of cutting has not been preserved by the language. There are many words for 'bending', 'twisting', 'boring/drilling', 'barking/flaying/peeling', 'rubbing', 'scratching', etc., but the specific meaning of each one has been lost. Therefore I do not see any use of quoting the dictionary entries for all of those words (which would have taken as much space as the rest of this book).

What is more important is the general impression concerning the industrial activities of the proto-Nostratic epoch. From popular literature on the 'Stone Age' archaeology the unprofessional reader (like myself) may draw a conclusion that the main materials of industry of the palaeolithic,

mesolithic and neolithic were **stones**. But in the light of the linguistic data the situation looks different. Alongside with *flints* (*č̥'rV, ?*buR)V) and other *stones* (*t̥ile, ?a, īo, *k̥i w, V, t̥E), no less important were other materials:

- (a) *wood* (**borus*χ ∇ ‘trunk’, ‘log’, **čU* ∇ ‘stalk, stick’, **kɔži* ∇ ‘tree trunk’, **kañ* ∇ (-*b* ∇) ‘stalk, trunk’, ‘log’), *poles* (**žuR* ∇ ‘pole, long piece of wood’)

(b) *rods* (see above **kad* ∇ ‘to wicker, wattle’, **kad* ∇ -*L* ∇ ‘wattle-fence’[22]),

(c) *sinew, tendons* (**čirγuł* ∇ , cf. above **čyařK* ∇ [25], **yany* ∇ [26], **ńoγi* ∇ [28]),

(d) *thorns* (**režek* ∇ ‘thorn, hook’),

(e) *teeth, claws used as hooks* (**k* ∇ *a* ∇ *k* ∇ *w* ∇),

(f) *bark* (**toř* ∇ , **Kapři* ∇ E¹, **Kayer* ∇), *leather and hides* (**tɔwga*, **tal* ∇ *ya* and others, as well as words for *skin or bark*, such as **Kai* ∇ u¹, **kɔRup* ∇ and **Kož* ∇). There is a word for *piece of leather, used especially as footwear* (**KvR* ∇ *Hplp* ∇).

There is a word denoting a *sharp piercing tool* (**p*ix*χyA*) without special reference to its material (bone, wood, stone).

[80] *č̪'ū'r^Δ ‘flint-stone, knife’ (coalesced in some languages with *č̪ar^Δ ‘to cut’) > **Ham.-Sem.**: Sem. *θurar- ~ *θir_ar- > Arabic ظَرْ ظِيرَ, ظَرَرْ ظِيرَارْ ‘sharp stone that can cut as a knife’, Akkadian șurrū(m) ‘obsidian, flint-stone’, Hebrew נֶרְבָּה ּכֹר ḥereb ‘blade of a sword’ (‘ḥereb ‘sword’) ||| Coptic: ςωρ ȝor, ςερ- ȝer- ‘to sharpen, whet’ ||| ? Berber *ȝ̪rū/ȝ ‘stone, rock’ > Kabyle a-ȝru ‘stone (material); a stone, rock’, Ahaggar Twareg a-ȝeru ‘muraille rocheuse’, Tamazight a-ȝru (pl. i-ȝra) ‘rock, large stone’, ti-ȝra ‘small stone’; in Berber the root coalesced with the cognate of Sem. *θurr- ‘rock’ (unless the latter belongs to the etymon in question, too) ||| Chadic: West Chadic: Hausa ȝúrà ‘handleless knife or sword’ || Central Chadic: Gude č̪íṛà, Fali of Muchella čuru, Fali of Bwagira č̪ṛuṇ ‘hoe’ || **Altaic**: Tungusic *čuru-_{k, a(n-)} ‘knife’ > Solon č̪iruχ: ‘knife’, Ulcha č̪urz(n-), č̪urun, Nanay č̪uruž č̪iurž ‘knife used by women in carving ornaments’ || **Drai**. *cīr̪raṇ ‘small chisel’ > Kannada cīraṇa, cīrṇa, jīrṇa ‘a small chisel, esp. used in cutting metals’, Telugu cīranamu ‘a small chisel’.

[81] ? *buR^Δ ‘flint’ (> ‘to cut\carve with a flint’) > **Ham.-Sem.**: Cushitic: Beja *ber'rawe* ‘flint’ ||| Sem. *%[✓]bry > Arabic [✓]bry (past بَرَّ barā, present-future -briy-) ‘cut’, ئَلْبَرَّ barāt- ‘a knife for cutting\trimming

wood\arrows' || **Altaic:** Tungusic *bur[▽] 'flint' > Ewenki *buru*, Solon *boro*, Lamut *bur*, Orochi *bu*, *burakta*, Ude *bū*, Ulcha, Orok *buraqta*, Nanay *boraqta* 'flint', Negidal *burokta* 'amber' || ??? **Indo-Eur.** *b^her- 'mit einem scharfen Werkzeug bearbeiten, ritzen, schneiden' > Persian *bur(r)īdān* 'to cut', Avestan *tiz-i-bāra-* 'sharp-edged' (of a knife, etc.) || Armenian *bah* 'spade', gen. -i (< *b^hrg-ti-) || ?? Middle Irish *bern*, *berna* 'Klaft, Schlitz' || Slavic *borna 'harrow' > Bulgarian *бра'на*, Serbo-Croatian (dial.) *brāna*, Slovene *brána*, Czech pl. *brány*, Russian *боро'на* 'harrow', Serbo-Croatian *brána* 'a kind of harrow'.

[82] *t^hi|e₁?a₁í₀ (or *t^hü₁?a₁í₀) 'stone, heap of stones' > **Altaic** *tjoíá~*tjáíá 'stone' > Hunnic (O. Pritsak's reconstruction) *tiāl 'stone' ||| Turkic *tjáí id. > Chuvash čul & čol 'id.', Narrow Turkic *tāš > Old Turkic tāš, Turkish taş 'stone', Içel Turkish daş-ağır 'stony land', Azeri, Salar daš, Türkmen dāš, Tuva даш таš, Yakut tās 'stone' ||| Mongolic *cilaqun 'stone' > Middle Mongolian čiləqun, Class. Mong. ciliagun, Halha culū, Kalmuck čolūn, Dagur čolō ¶ The voicelessness of the initial consonant *c- (for the expected voiced *z- < A *tj-) still defies explanation ||| Tungusic *zola 'stone' > Ewenki, Solon, Negidal, Orok jolō, Lamut jol, Orochi, Ude, Nanay, Ulcha žolō 'stone' ||| Korean: Middle Korean tōr(h), Phyöngyang and Seoul Korean tol, Kyöngsando dial. tōl, Hamgyöngdo dial. tol ||| proto-Japanese (according to Starostin) *t^hisí 'stone' > Old Japanese isagwo 'sand', Japanese: Tokyo dial. iší, Kagoshima dial. ís̄i, Hateruma (Ryukyu Islands) iís̄i 'stone' || **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. *till- (~**tīl- ~?**tall-) 'mound, heap of stones' > Hebrew tel, till- 'mound, hill, heap of stones', Jewish Aramaic tel, till-ā 'heap of stones, mound', Syriac tēl-ā 'mound, hill, heap', Arabic tall- 'hill, heap', Akkadian tīl-, tīl- 'mound' || **Kartu.** *ta:₁l- > Georgian tāl-i 'flint, fragment of a tooth' || **Drau.** *call- 'broken stone, (stone) chip' > Tamil cālli 'stone chips, pieces of glass', Malayalam, Tulu cālli 'chip, potsherd', Kannada jālli 'broken stone\metal', Tulu jālli 'broken stone', Telugu jālli 'road metal, broken stone', Parji zālub 'stone chips' ◇ The formula *t^hi|e₁?a₁í₀ reflects two alternative hypotheses: 1) the reconstruction *t^hi|e₁?a₁í₀ presupposes contraction of a Nostr. disyllable in Altaic: Nostr. *t^hi|e₁?a₁í₀ > Altaic *tjáí₀

~ **tjōi* 2) the reconstruction **ti̥e̥i̥o* presupposes a ‘vowel breaking’: **ti̥e̥i̥o* > Altaic **tjōi̥a* (> **tjōia* ~ **tjōi̥a*). The first alternative has an advantage: it accounts for the Kartv. and Drav. reflexes (Kartv. glottalized **t*- < **t?*- < **ti?*-, Drav. **ca*- < **tja*- < **ti̥a*-, the vowel *-a- both in Drav. and Kartv.) and for the length of the Altaic vowel (due to contraction of a disyllable), while the second alternative hypothesis presupposes rejection of both the Kartv. and Drav. roots and fails to account for the Altaic vowel length.

[83] **kiw̥i̥n̥hE* ‘stone’ > **Ham.-Sem.**: Chadic **v̥kw̥* (or **kw̥n̥*) ‘stone’ > Central Chadic: Matakam *kwaṛ*, Mafa *kwâ* | Buduma *kăú*, Affade *kao* | Nzangi *kwaጀq* || ? Sem.: Ge’ez *kwakwah* (pl. *kawākəh*) ‘stone, rock, stony ground’, Arabic *kāḥ-*, *kīḥ-* ‘rugged face of a mountain, side of a valley consisting of the hardest and roughest stone’ (in the prehistory of Arabic **ṇwṇ* > *n*) || **Kartv.** **kwa-* ‘stone’ > Old Georgian *kva-γ*, Georgian *kva*, Megrelian, Laz *kua* ‘stone’ || **Uralic**: Finno-Ugric **kiwe* ‘stone’ > Finnish, Estonian *kivi* | Erzya & Moksha Mordvin *kev* | Cheremis *kü* & *kūy* | Permian **ki* ‘stone, millstone’ > Votyak *kö* *kə*, Southwestern Votyak *kō* ‘millstone’, Ziryene *iz-ki* id. || Ob-Ugric **kăw̥* ‘stone’ > proto-Vogul **kăw̥* > Konda & Pelimka Vogul *kăw̥*, etc.; proto-Ostyak **köγ* ‘stone’ > Vakh Ostyak *köγ*, etc. | Hungarian *kő* (accus. *követ*) id.

[84] **boruṇ̥y* ‘trunk’ (‘log’) > **Ham.-Sem.**: Sem. **burṣ-* ~ **burāṣ-* ‘reed’ > Ge’ez *bəṛṣ* ‘reed’, Akkadian *burû* ‘reed mat’ (> Syriac *būrā* id.) || **Indo-Eur.** **b̥ruH-* / ~ **b̥reHw-* ‘log’ > Old Norse *brú* ‘bridge’, *bryggja* ‘landing-place, embankment’, Old High German *brucca*, Anglo-Saxon *brycʒ* ‘bridge’, Bavarian German *Brück* ‘Bretterbank am Ofen’, Swiss German *brügi* ‘Holzgerüst’, German *Brücke*, English *bridge* || Gaulish *brīva* ‘bridge’ (< **b̥rēwa*) || proto-Slavic **br̥vъvъ*, **br̥vъvъ* ‘trunk, log’ > Bulgarian (dial.) бръв ~ бръф ‘a tree used as a bridge over a stream\river; footbridge’, Serbo-Croatian *br̥v* ‘footbridge, log used as a footbridge’, Slovene *br̥v* ‘footbridge, gangway, gangplank’, Old Russian, Church Slavonic **бръвъ**, **бръвъ** ‘log’, **бөрвъ** ‘raft, embankment’, proto-Slavic derived stem **br̥vъvъno* ~ **br̥vъvъnъ* ~ **br̥vъvъna* ‘log’ > Old Church Slavonic

БРЪВЕНО, Bulgarian бръв'но, 'бървен', Russian брев'но id. || **Uralic**: Finno-Ugric *pora 'logs used as a raft or a bridge, a board' > proto-Lappish *pōrēvē > Norw. Lapp boar're 'logs placed together to form a primitive bridge over a river or lake; a board used as a floating raft', Lule Lapp parrē 'raft', Ter Lapp poarrew 'board (Brett)' | Permian *pur 'raft, ferry' > Votyak pur id., Ziryene pur 'raft', Ziryene (dial.) pur 'raft, ferry' || Ob-Ugric *pōrā 'raft' > proto-Vogul *pārā > Tavda Vogul parā, Sosva Vogul pōra id.; proto-Ostyak *pāra > Vasyugan Ostyak pāra id., etc. || ?? **Drau.** *paruline- 'hilt of a sword' > Tamil pariñcu, Malayalam priññu, Telugu parūñu id.

[85] ? *ćul̥j^l 'stalk, stick' > **Kartu.** *ćwel- 'stalks, straw' ('staff') > Old Georgian ćwel-i 'stalk(s)', Georgian ćvel-i 'chaff', Megrelian ću- id., Laz ću- 'straw (stalks)', o-ćval-e 'макинник' || **Ham.-Sem.:** ? Sem. *š'ill- or *š'ull- 'thorn' > Akkadian šillum ~ šullum 'thorn', 'pin, needle'. A deglottalized variant *salw- ~ *sall- ~ *sull- is suggested by Bibl. Hebrew sal'ān 'thorn', Jewish Aramaic סִלְוָה sil'wā, Syriac sal'w-ā id. and Arabic sullā?- 'épines du palmier' ||| Berber *-żiluy- or *-żuluy- 'branch' > Ahaggar Twareg a-żəl (pl. i-żl-ān) 'branch', East Tawellemmet a-żəl (pl. i-żəl-an), Tayert a-żəl (pl. ażl-an), Ghat ażəl (pl. iżlan), Tashelhit ta-żəly-ṭt (pl. ti-żəly-ā) id. || **Ural.:** Finno-Ugr. *ćul̥j^l ~ *ćul̥ 'stalk, stick' > Lowland Chreremis čylyk 'a thin twig\rod used to clear pipes', čylym čylym 'pipe', Highland Cheremis čylyk cələk 'a pipe of the Cheremis Dudelsack' || proto-Ostyak *ćo]l̥ 'Knuttel beim ſc̥-r-Spiel, Knuttel zum Schleudern von Zirbelzapfen', ū]l̥ w 'Knuttel beim ſc̥-r-Spiel; eigens zum Abschalgen von Zirbelzapfen hergestellter Stock' || **Altaic:** Tungusic: Solon ćoč'o'ku 'transverse perches of the roof' ('поперечные жерди на крыше') || **Drau.** *cūlikko 'stick' > Tamil cūlikku 'pikestaff, sharp-pointed stick carried by travellers', Kannada cūlike 'a stout stick to beat cotton with'.

[86] *ķočč^l 'tree trunk' > **Kartu.:** Georgian ķoč- i 'beam' || **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. *guθ^l - ~ *giθ^l - 'tree trunk' > Hebrew 'gezəs ~ 'gezəs, Syriac ցա՛շ-ā, Arabic گیث-ā, Arabic گیث- id. ||| Berber: Tashelhit agħeżżeġ (pl. igħeżwān) 'trunk' ¶¶ Ham.-Sem. *g- < *ķ- by assimilation? || **Altaic:** Mong.

*զօզիգուլա > Class. Mong. զօզացուլա ~ զօզիցուլա, Halha-Mong. խօզույն ‘tree trunk, stump’.

[87] *կանՎ(-բՎ) ‘stalk, trunk’ (‘log’) > **Indo-Eur.** *^genb^h-/*gnob^h- ‘peg, stick, piece of wood’ > [1] Germanic *kamb-, *kumb- > Old High German kembil ‘Fesselblock’, kamp ‘compes’, Old Norse kumbr ‘wood-block’, English chump id. (ch- due to the influence of chop), Norwegian (dial.) kump ‘Klumpen’; [2] Germanic *knab-, *knabb-, *knap-, *knapp- ‘peg, stick’ (→ ‘penis’ → ‘boy’) > German (dial.) Knabe ‘Stift, Bolzen’, Old High German knabē, German Knabe, Anglo-Saxon cnafa ‘boy’; Old Norse kneffil ‘pole, peg, stick’ (‘Stange, Pfahl, Stock’), Middle Low German knevel ‘short and thick transom (kurzes, dickes Querholz)’, Swedish (dial.) knavel ‘thin pole’ || | **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. *kann- ≈ ‘stem’, ‘base’ > Akkadian kannu ‘slip (of a plant), stalk, shoot (of a tree)’, Syriac kan^h-ā ‘stem (of a tree), stalk, root (of a plant)’, Jewish Aramaic kan^h-ā, Mandaic kana ‘base, fundament’, ? Biblical Hebrew קָנֵן ‘base, pedestal’ (the vowel e is mysterious), Tigre ካናት kan-et (pl. ካናንካናኑ) ‘rowing-pole’ ¶ There is probably contamination of the Sem. word in question with another word, meaning ≈ ‘place’ || | **Cushitic:** Agaw *kan- ‘tree’ > Bilin, Khamir, Kwara kana, Awngi kani || | **Drav.:** [1] Drav. *kaññ- ‘sprout, shoot’ > Tamil kaññi id., Malayalam kaññi ‘shoot of betel vines’ || | [2] Drav. *kāmp- ‘stalk, trunk’ (< Nostr. *կանՎ(-բՎ)) > Tamil kāmpu ‘bamboo; flower-stalk, handle, shaft’, Malayalam kāmpu ‘bamboo; stem, stalk’, Kota ka·v ‘handle’, Toda kōf ‘hollow stem, handle of tool’, Kannada kāmu, kāvu, Telugu kāma ‘stem, stalk, handle’, Gadba kāmē ‘handle of a spoon’, kāme ‘handle of ladle’, kanve stick’, Kodagu ke·mbi ‘bamboo *Oxytenanthera monostigma*’, Kuwi kamba & kāmba ‘handle’ || | [3] Drav. *kañVkk- ‘stick’ > Kota kañk ‘thin dry sticks’, Kannada kañike, kañuku ‘stalk of millet’, kañdike ‘stalk, stem’, Tulu kañaku ‘firewood’, Telugu kañika ‘stick’, ? Kuwi kandi ‘stick, twig’, Kurukh kañk ‘wood, timber’, Malto kanku ‘wood’ || | **Uralic:** Finno-Ugric *kanta ‘stump of a tree’ (→ ‘base’) > Finnish kanta ‘ground, base, heel’, Estonian kand (gen. kannu) ‘heel’, Finnish kanto, Estonian kand (gen. kannu) ‘stump’ | proto-Lappish *kōntōy ‘stump’ > Norw. Lapp guod'ido id., Lule Lapp kuottōi id.,

‘windfallen tree’, Kildin Lapp *kusnd-* ‘windfallen tree’ | Erzya Mordvin *kando*, Moksha Mordvin *kanda* ‘(wind)fallen tree’ || Ob-Ugric *k^hnt^v > proto-Vogul *k^hnt(^v) ‘a beam, serving as the vertical support of a storehouse’ > Pelimka Vogul *k^hnt*, Upper Lozva Vogul *xānta*; proto-Ostyak *kant ‘horizontal beam in a storehouse’ > Vasyugan Ostyak *kant*.

[88] *žuR^v ‘pole, long piece of wood’ > **Ham.-Sem.**: Egyptian *zɜw*, *zɜyy* ‘Balken’, Demotic Egyptian *sȝ*, Coptic *soi* ‘poutre’ ||| Berber *✓zrr ‘branch, cluster’ > Ghadamsi *ta-zrira* ‘branchette porte-fleur’, Tamazight *a-zrur* ‘grappe’, ? *ta-zra* ‘collier’, ? Kabyle *a-zrar* id. || **Kartv.** *žwar- ‘pole’ > Old Georgian *žuar-*, Georgian *žvar-* ‘cross’, Megrelian *žgunžg-* ‘pole (used as a prop for vine), stamen’, Atinuri Laz *mzguž-* ‘pole, thorn’ || **Indo-Eur.** *swer-/*sur- ‘pole’ > Old Indian *'svaru-h* ‘sacrificial post, stake, long piece of wood’ || Greek *Ἐμπρα* ‘prop, support’, Homeric Greek accus. *Ἐμπίν-α* ‘best-post’ || Old High German *swirōn* ‘bepfählen’, Middle High German *swir* ‘Uferpfahl’, Swiss German *Schwiren* ‘pole’, Anglo-Saxon *swier*, *swior* ‘post, wooden pillar’ || Latin *surus* ‘branch, pole’ || ?? Latvian *svēre* ‘Ziehbalken beim Brunnen’ (contamination with the root of *svēr-t* ‘to raise with a lever’) || ?? **Altaic**: Mongolic: Class. Mong. *žoruga* ‘arrow with a horn head’.

[89] *žiryu|ū ‘vein, sinew’ > **Kartv.** *žaryw- ‘vein, sinew’ > Old Georgian *žaryvi* ‘sinew’, Georgian *žaryvi* ‘vein’, Megrelian *žeryvi*, Svan *žäry-* id. || **Indo-Eur.** *ser(w)- ‘vein, thread’, ‘to string, join in a string’ > Old Indian *sarat* ‘thread’, *sarah* ‘string’, Avestan *hara* ‘mountain range’, Persian *hār* ‘a string or garland of beads, etc.’ || Tocharian A *sar-* ‘vein’ || Latin *servia* ‘garland’ || **Altaic** *sirw'ū > Mongolic *sirbü-sün ‘sinew, tendon’ > Middle Mongolian *širbüsün* ‘tendon, sinew’, Class. Mong. *sirbüsün*, Halha-Mong. *шөрбэс*, Kalmuck *шүрүч* ‘nerve, sinew, tendon; fibre, filament’, Buryat *шүрбэхэ(н)* ‘tendon’, Ordos *šörwösü*, Monguor *šbužž* ‘nerve, muscle, fibre, filament’ ||| Tungusic *sire-, *sire-kte ‘sinew, thread’ > Ewenki *sirsktə* ‘sinew, vein, sinew-fibre’, Solon *širittə*, Negidal *siyəktə*, Ude *sikstə*, Ulcha, Nanay *sirsktə* ‘thread’; Ewenki *siržən*, Arman Lamut *siržən* ‘thread of horse hair’, Negidal *siyžən*

'thread' || ? Korean: Old Korean (11th c.) *sir̥i* 'thread', Korean *sir id.* || ??? **Ham.-Sem.**: South Cushitic: Iraqw *dēṣarāmō* 'root, sinew' ◇ The apparently irregular initial **s-* in IE (for the expected **l-* from **ʒ-*) is accounted for by the IE law of **l* *r*-incompatibility: in the presence of a **r* the expected initial **l-* is replaced by **s-*, i. e. **ʒ...r* > IE **s...r*. A similar law in Altaic seems to be responsible for the initial Altaic **s-*.

[90] **?ežekU* 'thorn, hook' (< 'tooth') > **Ham.-Sem.**: Sem. **šikk(-at)-* 'thorn', 'pin, nail' > Biblical Hebrew *šek* (pl. *šik'kīm*) 'thorn', Arabic *šikk-at-* 'weapon, edge', Jewish East Aramaic *sik'k-ā*, *sikk-a't-ā* 'pin, nail', Akkadian *šikk-at-u(m)* 'point, Spitze' (aphaeresis pS **šikk-* < **?išikk-*, like in pS **p-* 'mouth' < **?p-*, cp. Cushitic **?ap-* 'mouth') ||| Cushitic **?išikʷ-* 'tooth' > South Cush.: Kwadza *išikuko*, pl. *išikwa*, Asa *liga*, Mbugu *išike* id. || East Cush. **iłk-* id. > Saho *ik-ə*, Somali *iłig*, pl. *iłk-ə*, Rendille *iłah*, pl. *iłk-ə*, Baiso *iłk-ə* (pl.?), Elmolo *iłk-ə?*, Arbore *iłk-ə*, *iłkwa* id., Oromo *iłk-āni* 'teeth', Konso *iłk-itta*, Gidole *iłh-it*, *iłh-ə*, Gawwada *iłg-e*, Harso *iłgakko*, Sidamo *hink-ə*, Alaba *ink-u*, Kambatta *ink-e*, Hadiya *ink-ē*, Burji *iṛk-ā* id. | Agaw **aRkʷ-* id. (**R* < Cush. **l* and **r*) > Bilin *?ərkʷi*, Khamir *ərəkʷ*, Kwara *yərkʷ*, Kemant *ərku*, Awngi *ərkʷi* id. || Beja *əyəkʷ* 'a front tooth' || **Altaic** **ełku* 'hook', v. 'hang on (smth.), hang on a hook' > Tungusic **elgu* 'hook (for pulling fish out of a net)', (<?) 'bear's fang' > Negidal *əłgu/ə* 'hook, bear's fang', Ewenki *əłgu*, Lamut *əłgə~əłgə* 'fish-spear', Orochi *əggū*, Ulcha *əłżu*, Orok *əłdu*, Nanay *əłgu* 'hook' ||| Mongolic **elgü-* v. 'hang on (smth.) > Class. Mong. *əlgü-*, *ölgü-* v. 'hang, hang on (a nail), *əlgün qədə-* v. 'nail onto (as pictures to the wall)', Halha-Mong. *ölgö-* v. 'hang, hang on (smth.)' ||| ? Turkic **ıł-* v. 'hang on (smth.)' > Old Turkic *ıł-* 'to catch smth. (with the hand, a hook, etc.)', Türkmen *ıł-* id. ('прицепляться, зацепляться'), Yakut *ıł-* 'to hang (smth. on an animal's back)', Qumïq, Qırghız, Qaraqalpaq, Nogay, Uzbek, East Turkic, Turkish (dial.) *ıł-*, Qazaq *ił* *ıł-*, Volga Tatar, Bashqurt *əł-* *ıł*, Khakas *ił-* *ıł-* v. 'hang on', Altay *ıł-* v. 'hook, hook on'.

[91] **k'akʷlW* 'tooth, claw', 'hook' > **Kartu**. **kač w-* 'hook' > Georgian *kačvi* 'hook' ('Haken, Häkchen'), Laz *koč-a* id., *kočari* ~ *kučari* id. || **Ham.-**

Sem.: Sem. *kakk- ‘(a kind of) tooth, sharp stick’ > Jewish Aramaic *kak'kā*, Syriac *kak'kā*, Mandaic *kaka* ‘tooth, molar’, Akkadian *kakk-u(m)* ‘stick, weapon’ || ? **Indo-Eur.** *kog-/ *keg- ‘hook, claw’ > Germanic *hōka-, *hakan- and *hēkan- ‘hook’ > Old High German *hāko*, *haggo*, Anglo-Saxon *hōc* ‘hook’ > English *hook*; Old Norse *hökja* ‘poker’ || Slavic *kogъtъ ~ *kogъtъ > Old Russian, Russian ‘коготь’, Czech (dial.) *kohát* ‘claw’, High Lusatian *kocht* ‘awn, костерь (a weed cereal)’ ¶ The lack of labialization of the IE stem-final consonant is still to be explained || **Uralic** *kokka ‘a protruding point, hook’ > Finnish *kokka* ‘a protruding point’, ‘stem of a ship (Vordersteven, Vorderschiff)’, Finnish (dial.) *kokka* ‘hook, fish-hook’, Karelian *kokka* ‘hook, stem of a ship’ | proto-Lappish *kōkkē > Norw. Lapp *gōakke* ‘hoe’, Inari Lapp *koakki*, Kildin Lapp *kuə̯kə* ‘hook’ || Vasyugan Ostyak *kaγəw*, Teryugan Ostyak *kāγəp*, *kuγp-* ‘hölzener Hachthaken’; alternatively, the Ostyak word may go back to Finno-Ugric *kopkka < Nostr. *goPKa ‘(a kind of) tooth, hook’ ||| Kolima Yukagir *kōkē* ‘head (of a fish, of an animal)’ || **Altaic**: Tungusic *xükte ‘tooth’ (< **xük-kte, where *-kte is a suffix) > Ewenki *ທktə* ‘tooth’, Negidal *ທktə* ‘tooth, canine’, Nanay *xukte* ‘tooth’, Class. Manchu *weyxe*, Sibe Manchu *vT̥xə* ‘tooth, canine’, Jurchen *yuγxe* ‘tooth’ || **Drav.** *kokk- ‘hook’ > Tamil *kokki* id., Malayalam *kokka* ‘clasp, hook’, Kota *koky*, Toda *kwɪky*, Kannada *kokki*, *kokke*, Kodagu *kokke* ‘crook, hook’, Tulu *kokkə* ‘hook, clasp’, Telugu *kokki* ‘a hook’, Gondi *kokki* ‘hoe’ ¶¶ The association of this Drav. noun with the partially homophonous verb *kɔŋkk-/*kokk- v. ‘bend’ is secondary (popular etymology). It brought about blended forms like Telugu *kɔŋki* ‘hook’ ◇ The labialization of the vowel in Ural., Drav. and Tungusic may be due to Nostr. *w (still preserved in Kartv.). The Nostr. vowel *a is reconstructed on the evidence of IE (initial *k- without labialization or palatalization), Semitic and Kartvelian. The long *-kk- in Ural. may point to the underlying ancient consonant cluster, but it (just as Kartv. *-k-) may be also explained by assimilation.

[92] *tor̥N ‘bark; to bark (remove the bark), to peel’ > ? **Ham.-Sem.**: Chadic: Angas-Goemay *(n)daram ‘bark’ > Sura dərəm ‘thick tree-bark’, Tal dərəm, Yiwom ndərəm, Tambas dərəm ‘bark’, Angas dərm | Warji tirhei

‘skin’ ||| East Chadic: Somray *tàriń* ‘bark’, Kera *tīrə*, Tumak *dār* ‘human skin’ ||| **Indo-European** *der- ‘to skin, flay, bark’ > Armenian *terem* ‘I flay, skin’ ||| Greek δέρω id., δείρω id. (*-yo-present) ||| Low Lithuanian (Zhemaitian) *derū*, Lithuanian *diriu* (*-yo-present), inf. *dirti* v. ‘flay, bark’ | proto-Slavic *derq / *dъra-ti > Old Church Slavonic *derq*, *dъrati* v. ‘skin, flay; tear to pieces, lacerate’, Russian *драть*, *де'рь* v. ‘bark (a tree)’, *обо'драть*, *обде'рь* v. ‘peel, bark’, Czech *deru*, *dřít* i ‘schinden, schälen’ ||| **Altaic** *tōŕv > Turkic *tōŕ ‘birch bark’ > Old Turkic *toz* ‘birch bark’, Volga Tatar *tuz*, Bashqurt *tuš*, Qazaq *toz*, Standard Altay, Khakas *tos*, Tuva *t'os*, Tofalar *tos*, Yakut *tūos* ‘birch bark’, Azeri *toz-aşačı* ‘birch tree’ (*aşač* ‘tree’) ||| Mongolic *duru-sun > Class. Mong. *durusun*, Halha *дүрс* ‘shell, bark’, Kalmuck *dursən* ‘bark (Baumrinde)’ ||| Tungusic *duri ‘cradle made of birch bark’ > Lamut *dōr* & *dur*, Negidal *duy*, Orochi *duyi*, Ude *düi*, Ulcha, Nanay *duri* id., Class. Manchu *duri* ‘cradle’ ◇ The IE root goes back to a merger of two Nostr. roots: *tōŕv ‘to peel, to bark’ and *terⁱ ‘to tear, burst’.

[93] *K̥a'p̥iſ̥'E̥ ‘bark’ > **Ham.-Sem.**: Cushitic: Agaw *k̥app- > Awngi *qap*, Bilin *kāf* ‘bark’ ||| South Cushitic: Iraqw *qafti* (pl. *qaftō*) ‘membrane, cover’, *qafta* ‘peel of fruits’, Alagwa *qafa?*i, Burungi *qafa* ‘bark’ ||| Chadic: West Chadic: Geji gùp̥s̥iŋ ‘bark’, Boghom kòp̥s̥aŋ id., Zar of Kal *kʷàbà*, Zar of Gambar-Lere *kàbú*, Saya *kóbzk* ||| Central Chadic: Tera *gàbà*, Pidlimti *g̥ib̥z̥r* ‘bark’ ||| **Uralic** *kopa ‘bark’ > Estonian *kõba* ‘fir bark’ | Erzya-Mordvin *куво* ‘crust, rind’, Moksha-Mordvin *кува* id., ‘bark’ | Cheremis (dial.) *kuwo* & *kuwū* & *kuwa* & *kūwo* ‘chaff, pod, husk’ | proto-Permian *ku ‘bark, skin’ > Votyak *ku* id., Ziryene *ku* ‘pelt, skin’ ||| Samoyedic *kōp̥a ‘skin, bark’ > Tundra Nenets *хонă* ‘skin (of an animal)’, Forest Nenets *kōp̥:ă*, Nganasan 'kufu, Enets 'koba ‘skin’, Taz Sölqup *qor̥t* ‘pelt of an animal, skin, bark, rind’, Kamassian *k'uba*, *k'uþa* ‘skin, hide, leather’, Koibal *куба*, Mator *кō* ‘skin’, Taigi *когото* ‘his skin’ (according to Janhunen’s analysis) ||| **Altaic** *k'āp̥a ‘bark, skin’ > Turkic *k'āpuk ‘bark, shell’ > Old Turkic *qavıq*, *qavuq* ‘bran’, Old Qipchaq [14th c.] *qawuq* ‘millet\barley gruel’, Turkish *kabuk*, Türkmen *gābiq*, Azeri *gabığ*, Salar *gox*, Volga Tatar, Bashqurt, Qazaq, Qırğız *qabıq*, Gagauz, Balqar *qabıq*, Crimean Tatar

qabuχ, Uzbek qabiq, East Turkic qobuq, Chuvash хүпä χäбä ‘bark, shell’, Khakas χabiχ, Tuva χavıq ‘husk’; Gagauz qap ‘cover’ ||| Mongolic *qa^rβuda-sun ‘bark’ > Class. Mong. qaqudasun, Halha хүүдас, Buryat хүүдана(н) ‘sheet of paper’, Kalmuck хүүдс χüdəs id., χüdəsəŋ ‘bark’; Mongolic *qa^rβura- v. ‘peel’ > Class. Mong. qaqura- ~ qauring-, Halha хүүра-x v. ‘peel off’; Mongolic *qa^rβul- v. ‘peel’ > Middle Mongolian χa^rγul-χu v. ‘skin, flay, peel’ (‘abhäuten, abschinden’), Class. Mong. qaqul-, Halha хүүлə-x v. ‘peel off, skin, flay’, Kalmuck хүүл-x χüll-x, Monguor χülli- id.; Mongolic *qobqul- v. ‘peel, flay’ > Class. Mong. qobqul-, Halha ховхло-x id.||| ? Tungusic *xabda- v. ‘clean a tree from branches’, abdaŋxa ‘leaf’ > Manchu abda-, abdal-a- ‘clean a tree from branches’, abdaxa ‘leaf’, Jurchen abuha (or abdaha), Ewenki abdanna, Lamut ebdeñrə ~ ebdeñdə, Negidal abdahān, Orochi abdasa, Ude abdehæ, Ulcha, Naikhin Nanay χabdata, Bikin Nanay χabtaca ~ χabca ~ χaftaca, Orochi χamdata, Sibe Manchu afahə ~ afχa ‘leaf’, Class. Manchu afaxa ‘leaf (flowing on water), sheet (of paper)’ ||| proto-Korean (according to Starostin) *kàpʰ- (~ *kàpʰ-) ‘bark’ > Middle Korean kàpʰír, kàpčír ‘bark’, Standard Korean kə:pčil ‘skin, bark, shell’, kə:pteki id., ‘husk, peel’, Korean dialects: Phyöngyang kə:pčil, Phyöngyang-Namdo kə:pčil, Kyöngsangdo kə:pči, Hamgyöngdo kə:pči, Seoul kə:pčil, Chöngsando koptégi, Kangwöngdo kəptegi ‘bark’, Chejudo kə:ptegi id., ‘skin’ ||| proto-Japanese *kapa ‘skin, bark’ > Old Japanese kapa, Japanese dialects: Tokyo kawá, Keto kàwa, Kagoshima kawa, Nase kó, Shuri ká, Yonakuni ká ¶¶ According to Starostin, the Altaic root has a variant *k'ēp'o > proto-Korean *kàpʰ- (see above), Turkic *k_tepék ‘bran, chaff’ and Mongolic *kebeg ‘bran, husks’. These two variants may represent two different results of synharmonic levelling, suggesting the existence of a front vowel in the second syllable of the Nostr. root ||| ? **Kartvelian:** Georgian ქep-i ‘sheet of paper’; the unexpected vowel e has no explanation so far ◇ The vowel *o in Ural. may be explained by assimilatory influence of *p.

[94] *Kayer ∇ ‘bark, film’ > **Altaic** *k'ayEr ∇ > Mong. *qayir ∇ -sun ‘scales’ > Middle Mongolian qairsun ‘fish scales’, Class. Mong. qairsun ~ qairasun, Halha-Mong. xайрс ‘scales (of fishes and reptiles), Ölöt

Kalmuck **харсη** ‘scales, hard bark, callosity’ ||| Turkic: Volga Tatar **qayraq** ‘hard tumour’ (the homonymy with **qayraq** ‘whetstone’, bringing about popular etymology: ‘tumour as hard as a whetstone’), Volga Tatar **qayri** ‘bark, lime bast’, Chuvash (dial.) **хоуър** ‘bark’ ||| Tungusic ***xere-** v. ‘bark’ > Class. Manchu **ere-** v. ‘bark of a birch-tree’, Ulcha **хэрэз-** v. ‘scale (dried fish skin)’, Tungusic ***xere-kte** ‘bark’ (noun) > Ewenki **эрэктэ** ‘bark’, Negidal **зызктэ**, Ulcha, Orok, Nanay **хэрэктэ**, Orochi **энктэ** ‘skin’, Lamut **эртъ** id., ‘scales’ ||| proto-Korean (according to Starostin) ***کár-čʰj̃z̃η** > Middle Korean **کár-čʰj̃z̃η** ‘young skin of a plant’ ||| proto-Japanese ***kara** ‘shell’ > Old Japanese, New Japanese **kara** || | **Indo-Eur.** ***ker-** ‘skin, hide, bark’ > Old Indian ‘**carma** ‘skin, hide’, Avestan **čārəman-** ‘hide, leather’, Old Persian **čarman-** ‘leather’ || Latin **corium** ‘thick skin, hide, bark’ || Greek **κώρυκος** ‘leather sack’ || Irish **curach**, Welsh **corwg, cwrwg** ‘boat made of animal skin’ || Lithuanian **karnà** ‘lime-bast’, Prussian **kērmens** ‘body’ | Slavic ***kora** ‘bark’ > Old Church Slavonic **ко́ра**, Bulgarian, Russian **ко́па**, Serbo-Croatian **ко́ра**, Slovene **kóra**, Czech **kůra**, Polish **kora** id. || ?? **Kartv.**: Georgian **kerk-** ‘bark, crust, peel’, Arxavuri Laz **kyark-** ‘skin of the hand’ || | **Uralic**: (1) pre-Ural. ****kayer** ∇ > ****kayr** ∇ > ****kär** ∇ > Finno-Ugric ***kōr** ∇ ‘skin, bark’ > Finnish **kuori** ‘skin, peel, bark, crust, shell’, Estonian **koor** ‘shell (of eyes), peel, bark’ | Erzya & Moksha Mordvin **kař** ‘bast shoe’ | Permian ***kōrš** > Ziryene **kīrš** ‘bark’ ||| Samoyedic ***kär** (?) ‘skin, shell’ > Tundra Nenets **сяр** ‘skin, surface’, Obdorsk dial. **śär?** ‘harte Innenfläche der Tierhaut’, Forest Nenets **šär?** in **nūm šarr‘** ‘Himmelsgewölbe’, Taz Sölqup **qora** ‘hide’ ||| Kolima Yukagir **xār** ‘skin’, **šān-xār** ‘bark’ (lit. ‘tree-skin’) |||| (2) pre-Ural. ****ka'yer** ∇ > Finno-Ugric ***kere** > Finnish **kéri** ‘the bark which grows on the birch tree after the first bark has been removed’, Estonian **kere** ‘lime-bast’ | proto-Lappish ***kərz** ‘bark’ > Norw. Lapp **gārrâ**, Kildin Lapp **kərr** id. | Erzya Mordvin **керь keř**, Moksha Mordvin **кяр kär** ‘bark, sheet of lime bast’ | Highland Cheremis **kär**, Lowland and East. Cheremis **kür** id. | Permian ***kōr** > Ziryene **kor / kory-** ‘peel’, (in a set phrase) ‘sheet of lime-bast’, Luza Ziryene **kor** ‘upper layer of bark’, Upper Sisola Ziryene **kōr** ‘bark’, Votyak, Permyak **kur**, Southwestern Votyak **kūr**, Beserman Votyak **kōr** ‘lime bast’ ||| Ob-Ugric ***kīr** (∇) ‘bark’ > proto-Vogul ***kīr** > Tavda,

Konda and Sosva Vogul *kér* id.; proto-Ostyak *kir ‘snow crust’ > Vakh Ostyak *kir* id.; proto-Ostyak *kär ‘bark’ > Vakh Ostyak *kär* | Old Hungarian *kér* ‘diaphragm’, (in compound words) -kér ‘thin skin, film’, Hungarian *kérég* ‘bark, crust’.

[95] **ṭo₁w₂ga* or **ṭoga₁-w₂ṇ* ‘hide, skin’ > **Kartvelian** **ṭgaw-* id. > Old Georgian *ṭgaw-* ‘leather, skin, hide’, Georgian *ṭgav-* id., Megrelian *ṭgeb-* ‘skin’, *ṭqabar-* v. ‘skin’, Laz *ṭqeb-* ~ *ṭeb-* ‘skin, hide’ || **Ham.-Sem.:** Chadic **√dik* ‘skin’: West Chadic: Bole *dìší* || Central Chadic: Masa *dígīnā* ~ *dik* ‘skin’, Zime *díké* ~ *qiké* ‘human skin’, Lame *dikietú*, Lame-Peve *diketu* ‘skin’ | Chadic **√tk* ~ **√t̪k* ‘skin, body’ > East Chadic: Migama túkkú, Jegu *tok*, Mubi *tògò* & *tógo* ‘skin, hide’ || West Chadic: Yiwom *tak* ‘body’ | Warji *ts̪rāj*, Tsagu čuké, Kariya *tí*, Miya túwàtú, Mburku *ts̪wó*, Jimbin túwá ‘body’ | Ngizim *tṣkà* ‘body’ (unless from Kanuri *tig̃s* ‘body’) || ?? Central Chadic: Masa *twā*, *tū:nā*, Zime-Batna *tú* ‘body’ || **Indo-Eur.** **twakos* ‘skin, hide’ > Old Indian *tvak* ‘skin, hide’ | ? Old Persian *taka-* ‘shield’ || Greek *σάκος* ‘shield’ (σ - < **tw-*, $\sigma\sigma$ - < **-tw-*) ||| Hittite *tuekka-* ‘body, person, self’, Lycian *tukedri-* ‘statue’ || **Uralic** **to'k'* ∇ (or **toŋ* ∇ , **toŋ* ∇) > Ob-Ugric **tăv-* ‘skin, leather’ > proto-Vogul **tăwə́i* id. > Tavda Vogul *tawí*, Konda Vogul *towí*, etc.; proto-Ostyak **tăytä* ‘reindeer hide’ > Teryugan Ostyak *tayta*, etc. || **Altaic:** ? \wp Tungusic **tiki-kta* ‘skin, hide (from animal’s head)’ > Ew *tiki-kta* ‘skin’, Lamut *tīkən* ‘hide (from animal’s head), Negidal *tikta*, Orochi *tikta* ‘animal’s hair’ || **Dravidian** **tokk-* ‘skin, bark, rind’ > Tamil *tokku*, Telugu *tokka* id., Malayalam *tokku* ‘skin, peel’ | derived stem **tokaṭ* ‘bark, peel’ > Kannada *togaṭu*, *togaṭe*, *tōṭe* ‘bark, rind, peel, pod’, Tamil, Malayalam *tōṭu* ‘shell of a fruit’, Gondi *tōtā* ‘outer skin of the mahua fruit’, Gondi Koya *tōṭe* v. ‘peel’ ◇ The meaning ‘body’ (in Hittite and West Chadic) is secondary (metonymy ‘skin’, ‘body’).

[96] **ṭal₁U₂ya* ‘skin, pelt’ > **Ham.-Sem.:** Chadic: Kariya, Pa'a *tala*, Tsagu *tal* ‘skin’ || **Uralic** **tal₁ly₂* ‘skin, pelt’ > Finnish *talja* id.; proto-Lappish **tōlyē* ‘pelt’ > Norw. Lapp *duol'lje* ||| Samoyedic **t'āb'ū'b* (= **t'cābjñb*)

‘skin of the head’ > Tundra Nenets тай ‘skin of the forehead; forehead’, Obdorsk dial. тай ‘skin of the face’, Forest Nenets тай, тайжкъ id., Nganasan туажа ‘skin of the forehead’, Somatu Enets тайо, Bay Enets taijo ‘skin of the head’, Kamassian (der.) т‘ую-шък‘ту’ ‘reindeer\elk hide used as a bed (Schlafstätte)’ || **Altaic** *^t‘^alu’ > Tungusic *talу ‘birch bark’ > Ewenki talу, Solon тал ~ талу, Negidal, Ulcha, Orok талу, Orochi талу, Ude талуга, Nanay тало ~ талу, Class. Manchu толхон || **Drav.** *tōl / *tolи ‘skin, hide’ > Tamil, Malayalam тōl ‘skin, hide’, Tamil tolி ‘skin, rind, husk’, Malayalam tolி ‘skin, bark, peel, rind’, Kota тōl, Toda twi·s, Kannada тōl(у), Kodagu тōlì, Telugu тōlu, Kuwi тōlū, тōlu ‘skin, hide’, Tulu tolikæ, Parji, Gadba тōl ‘skin, bark’, Naikri, Naiki, Parji тōl ‘skin’, Gondi тōl ‘skin, hide’ ↗ тōla ‘skin, bark of tree’ ↗ тōlu ‘skin’, Konda тōl, тōlu ‘skin (of animals)’ ◇ The rounded vowel following *l in the Nostr. etymon is tentatively postulated as responsible for *-u in Tungusic and the labializing assimilative influence in Drav. (bringing about *ō rather than regular *a < Nostr. *a).

[97] ***Kaíū** ‘skin, film, bark’ > **Indo-Eur.** *kalno-, *kъno- ‘callosity, hard skin’ > Latin callum, callus ‘hardened thick skin, callosity’ || Sanskrit 'किंडा 'callosity' (↔ Middle Indian < *क्रृंडा) || Albanian 'a-kull 'ice' ¶ The stem may have been semantically influenced by IE *k̥kal- ‘hard’ (> Old and Middle Irish calath, calad ‘hard’) || **Uralic** *kaíw▽ ‘film, thin skin’ > Finnish kalvo ‘film, membrane’, Estonian (dial.) kale, kalu, Livonian kaíg_ ‘cataract’ | Permian amb*kií > Ziryene kií ‘seed-coat, surface film, outer [scaling off] layer of birch bark, dandruff’, Votyak kií ‘scales that come off from the bark, dandruff’ || Hungarian hályog, (dial.) hajág, halyag, hálóg ‘cataract’ ¶ The Permian root is ambiguous: it belongs here only if its *i is accounted for by assimilatory influence of consonants; otherwise it belongs to Finno-Ugric *keže < Nostr. *kež?▽ ‘skin, bark’ || **Altaic:** Mongolic *qali-sun ‘the outer layers of smth.; peel, rind, bark, skin’ > Class. Mong. qalison, Halha хальс, Kalmuck хальсн хайсан, Buryat хайха(n) id., Monguor хализ_з ‘pellicule, membrane, écaille, épiderme’ ||| Tungusic *xalu- ‘pellicle’ > Bikin Ude алу ‘dandruff’, Class. Manchu альхува ‘outer pellicle (of brain\kidneys\heart), skin of fruit’; Tungusic *xalu-kta ‘film, inner side of

hide (mezdra)’ > Lamut *al̥t̥* id., Orok *χalvqta*, Naikhin & Bikin Nanay *χaloqta*, Ewenki, Orochi, Ude *alukta*, Negidal *alta* ‘the inner side of hide’; Tungusic **xalu-* > Kur-Urmi Nanay *alū-* v. ‘remove the inner side of hide’, Lamut *al̥w-* id., v. ‘remove a film’ ◇ Compare also Kartv.: Georgian *kr̥ol-i* ‘outer shell of a nut\chestnut’. If it belongs here, the initial consonant is to reconstruct as **k̥-*. The root is to be carefully distinguished from paronymic roots, such as **Kožv* ‘to peel, to skin’.

[98] **koRup* ▽ ‘(kind of) bark’, ‘skin’ > **Kartv.**: Georgian *kr̥op-i* ‘bark of cork-oak, cork’ || **Ham.-Sem.**: Sem. **✓ k̥rp* ‘to peel off’ > Arabic *✓ qrf* id., Ge’ez *✓ k̥rf* ‘v. peel off, skin, bark’; Sem. **‘k̥irap(-at)-* ‘bark’ > Arabic *qirf-at-* id., pl. *qiraf-*, Ge’ez *k̥arāft* ‘bark, skin, peel, rind’; probably also Sem. **‘kujirab-* > Arabic *qirb-at-* (pl. *qirab-āt-*) ‘a large skin for milk or water’, Tigray *k̥wərbət*, Amharic *kr̥bət* ‘skin for milk’, *kr̥bət* ‘tanned hide used as a sleeping mat’, Tigre *kr̥bət* ‘dressed skin; skin for water\milk\honey’, Ge’ez *k̥wərbābit*, Amharic *k̥wərbəbičča* ‘leather bag’; Ethiosemitic → Beja *‘k̥wərbə* ‘skin’, proto-Agaw **‘k̥w̥vrb-nt-* ‘skin’ > Khamir *‘k̥w̥ər’bī* ‘skin, hide’, Khamita *kerbir* ‘skin’, Kwara *‘k̥ɔrbē* ~ *k̥ɔrbē* ~ *k̥ɔrbī* ‘skin, leather’; ? Ge’ez *karb* ‘eyelid’ ||| ? East Cushitic: Tsamay *garb* ‘skin’ ||| Chadic: West Chadic: Tsagu *‘k̥orōpē*, Wangday *k̥w̥ɔrtp* ‘bark’ || East Chadic: ? Somray *k̥w̥əb̥rāw* ‘bark’ || **Indo-Eur.** **kreup-* ‘crust, crusted’ > Celtic: Latin (← Gaulish) *cruppellarii* ‘armoured people, i.e. the Gaulish gladiators who fought in full armour’ || Old Norse *hrúfa* ‘crust of a wound’, Bavarian German *Ruff* ‘Kruste auf rasch getrocknetem Erdreich’, Old High German *ge-rob* > German *groß* ‘coarse’ || Latvian *kr̥au̯pē* ‘scab, wart’, *kr̥au̯pis* ‘scab’, Lithuanian *nū-krūpės* ‘scurfy’, *kraupės* ‘coarse’; in the IE languages the root contaminated with *(s)*krep-/*(s)kerp-* of another origin (> Old High German *scorf*, Anglo-Saxon *scēorf* ‘scurf’, Lithuanian *karpa* ‘wart’) || **Altaic**: Mongolic *qoruβ’u* > Class. Mong. *qoruū*, *qorgu*, Halha *χypuyy*, Kalmuck *χoryā* ‘spot in the eye, film, cataract’.

[99] **Kožv* ‘to skin, to bark’ > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic **✓ k̥šw* > Arabic *✓ qšw* (past *qašā*, present-future *-qšuw-*) v. ‘bark (wood), skin (a

snake)’ || **Uralic** *koðv- v. ‘skin, bark’ > Lowland & Eastern Cheremis κιδαša-, Highland Cheremis κъдаša- v. ‘take off (clothes, footwear)’ | Permian *kuí- v. ‘take off, bark (wood), skin (an animal)’ > Votyak կыль- k+í- v. ‘take off (clothes)’, Ziryene կոլյ- kuí- id., v. ‘bark (wood), skin (an animal)’, Yazvian kúí- v. ‘bark, skin’ || Upper Konda Vogul կә́йт-, Upper Lozva Vogul չա́յտ-v. ‘peel, scutch (hemp\nettle)’, Tavda Vogul կզիանտօլ ‘chaff (of hemp\nettle)’ || **Altaic:** Mongolic *qoltu'-sun ‘bark (of a tree)’ > Class. Mong. qoltusun, qoltasun, Halha холтос id.; Mongolic *qoltu- (+ deriv. suffixes) v. ‘peel off’ > Class. Mong. զոլտու-, Halha холтлох, Kalmuck ҳолтлх ҳоlтах, Class. Mong. qoltura, Halha холтрох id.

[100] *ΚΔΡΔΗρρΔ ‘piece of leather (used esp. as footwear)’ > **Indo-Eur.** *kerap-/krēp- id. > Latin *carpisculum* ‘(a kind of) shoe’ || Old Irish cairem ‘shoemaker’ (< **kariamos, IE *k_orap-), Welsh *crydd* (< Celtic *ka'riyos), Old Cornish *chereor*, Breton *kere*, *kereour* id. || Old Norse *hriflingr*, Anglo-Saxon *hrifeling* ‘shoe’ || Lithuanian *kūrpé*, Latvian *kūrpe*, Prussian *kurpe* ‘shoe’ | Slavic: [1] *kъrpa ‘piece of cloth’ > Church Slavonic **кръпа** kъrpa ‘textura, ՚նფաσμა’ (‘web’), Bulgarian ‘кърпа’ ‘shawl’, Macedonian Slavic *krpa* ‘rag, shawl, towel’, Serbo-Croatian *křpa*, Slovene *křpa* ‘rag, patch’; [2] *kъrpъ, *kъrpъ, *kъrpja ‘(a kind of) footwear’ > Polish (dial.) *kierp* id., *karpie* ‘a kind of footwear with a wooden sole’, Czech (dial.) *křp* ‘high boot’, Serbo-Croatian (dial.) *křplje* ‘ski’, Serbo-Croatian *křplja* ‘wooden hoop on shoes for walking on deep snow’ || Greek κρηπής / κρηπίδος ‘shoe’ || **Ham.-Sem.:** Chadic *✓kṛp ‘footwear’ > West Chadic: Tsagu *kàràpátàn*, Mburku *kárákṣm* ‘shoe’ || Central Chadic: Daba *kíráp*, Kola *kráp*, Musgu *harabág* id. || **Braj.** *kervpp- ‘footwear (sandals, etc.)’ > Tamil *ceruppu*, Malayalam *cerippu*, Kota *kevr*, Toda *kerf*, Kannada *keravu* ~ *kerahu* ~ *kerpu*, Telugu *ceppu* ‘sandal, shoe’, ? Kolami, Naikri *kerri* ‘shoe, boot’, Pengo *cerup*, *cerpu*, Gondi *serpum* ✈ *sarpum* ✈ *sarpo* ✈ *sarpu* ✈ *herpunъ* ‘sandal’, Konda *sepu* ‘shoe’, Kuwi *seppu* ~ *seppū* id., *cepunga* ‘sandals’, Kurukh *k̄arpā* ‘straps (without sole) crossed over and worn round the ankle’.

[101] *pix|yyA ‘sharp bone, sharp tool’ > **Kartu.** *pxa- (or *pqa-) ‘fish bone, cartilage, awn’ > Georgian pxɑ- ‘cartilage, awn’, Megrelian xɑ- ‘snake’s cartilage, fish scale’, Laz mxɑ- ‘fish bone’, Svan pxɑ- ‘fish bone’; according to Klimov, the Georgian verb pxek-/pxik- v. ‘scrape (скоблить)’ belongs here as well || **Indo-Eur.** *(s)p(h)ēi-/*(s)p(h)i- ‘pointed (spitz), a pointed piece of wood’ > Old Indian ‘sphya- ‘piece of wood shaped like a sword; shoulder-blade’, Khowar pʰt̪ ‘wooden spade’, Prs ꝑfih ‘oar, spade’ |||| with the root-extension *-d-: Anglo-Saxon spitu, Old High German spiz ‘spit (Bratspieß)’, German Spieß ‘spear, spit’, Norwegian spita ‘Pflock’, spit ‘point’, Old High German spizzi, German Spitze id., English spit || Latin cuspis, -dis ‘point (of a spear); sting; spear, lance; spit’ (< *kuri-spis) || **Uralic** *piye ‘flintstone, stone’ > Finnish pii ‘flintstone’, Finnish, Estonian piikivi id. (kivi ‘stone’) || Samoyedic *pъjøy ‘stone’ > Tundra Nenets пә, Obdorsk dial. pāe ‘stone, glass’, Forest Nenets pāey id., Tundra Nenets tūm-pe, Forest Nenets tup-pī ‘flintstone, Feuerstein’ (tū ‘fire’), Somatu Enets fū, Bay Enets fu ~ pu ‘stone’ | Taz Sölqup pū, Ketj, Tim & Turukhan Sölqup pū ‘stone’ | Koibal pi | Mator hilä, Taigi hylä id. ||| Kolima Yukagir pie ‘Berg, Stein, Felsen’ ||? **Altaic:** Tungusic: Class. Manchu fe- v. ‘mow’ ||| Korean pi- v. ‘cut as with a sickle’ ||?? **Ham.-Sem.:** Cushitic: Iraqw fēh- v. ‘split’ ||| West Chadic: Miya biy-, Warji biy- v. ‘stab, pierce’, Kariya bīyā, Siryanchi bīyù v. ‘pierce’ || Central Chadic: Logone piyà v. ‘cut’.

7. Anatomy

The speakers of Nostratic had a fairly good knowledge of anatomy. The words usually do not distinguish between the human body and that of animals, but we may guess that their main interest was in the latter. In addition to words referring to easily observable and identifiable parts of the body (head, leg, horn, tail, etc.), they had special terms for inner organs and inner substances: not only ‘heart’ and ‘liver’, but also ‘bile’ (*piš[∇]), ‘spleen’ (*t'äx¹xa~*t'ä¹xa, *t'äl¹e¹pA), ‘brain and marrow’, to such details which are not usually distinguished today (by those who are not physicians), e.g. ‘occiput’ (*g¹edi), ‘sinciput’ (*t'EqmE), ‘popliteal space (hollow at the back of the knee)’ (*gōlatKE), ‘jugular vertebra, nape’ (*ñiK¹a). All this is natural for

the society of hunters, for those who used different parts of animal bodies for cooking and for manufacturing goods.

[102] *piš ∇ ‘bile’ > **Indo-European** *bis-(t)l ∇ ‘bile’ > Latin bīlis (< *bislis) id. ||| Welsh buſt̪l, Old Cornish biſtel, Breton best̪l id. ||| **Uralic** *piša ‘bile’ (→ ‘green, yellow’) > Erzya Mordvin piže, Moksha Mordvin piža ‘green, copper’ ||| Samoyedic *pъtä ‘bile’ > Tundra Nenets пăдъя, Forest Nenets pačä, Nganasan fate \notin hot̪, Enets roðe id. | Taz Sölqup pat̪ ‘bile’, pat̪í ‘yellow, green, blue’, Tîm Sölqup pa·d̪, Chaya Sölqup pače ‘bile’ | Kamassian p’âda, Koibal пода ‘bile’ | Mator хадыде ‘his\its bile’ || **Dravidian** *picci- ‘bile’ > Tamil picci ‘bile, madness’, Malayalam picci, Kota puc, Kannada peccu, raccu, russu, Telugu picci, picca ‘madness’, Toda puc ‘anger’, Naiki pisak ‘mad’; Drav. \leftrightarrow Old Indian pitta- ‘bile’.

[103] *t̪äx l̪a ~ *t̪äl̪x a or *t̪ax l̪E ~ *t̪al̪x E ‘spleen’ > **Ham.-Sem.**: Sem. *t̪ihāl- id. > Middle Hebrew בְּחִזְבָּן tə'ḥib̪n, Jewish Aramaic, Syriac ṭəħā'1-ā, Arabic ṭiħāl- ‘spleen’; Semitic *ṭulħim- ‘spleen’ > Akkadian ṭulħmu, Mehri, Harsusi ṭəlħaym, Jibbali ṭəlħim id. ||| **Altaic** *tāl̪l ∇ > Turkic *t̪äl̪ ‘spleen’ > Old Uighur tāl, East Turkic tāl, Yakut tāl id.; der.: Turkic *t̪äl̪-ak (~ ε *täläk) id. > Turkish dälak, Gagauz dalak, Azeri dalay, Tebriz Azeri däläy, Türkmen dälak, Qazaq, Volga Tatar, Bashqurt talaq, Uzbek talaq ||| Mongolic *deli-kün > Class. Mong. deligün, Middle Mongolian delgün \notin deli?ün, Halha дэлүү(н), Buryat дэллюү(н), Kalmuck delün \notin delün, Monguor diliū, Dagur delkin; Ancient Mongolian *deli-kün \leftrightarrow Classical Manchu delixun ~ delyaxun, Ewenki dəlk̪in, Solon dəlk̪i; Middle Mongolian *deligün > Ude dəligi ||| **Kartvelian** *t̪qirp- ‘spleen’ > Georgian t̪qirp-, Megrelian t̪qip- id.

[104] *l̪äle²pA ‘spleen’ > **Ham.-Sem.**: East Cush.: Afar ałe'fū [pl. a'ləf-it] ‘spleen’ ||| West Chadic: Sura ḥlap, Kofyar lāp, Montol, Angas lāp ‘spleen’ || **Uralic** *läpp ∇ (or *lepp ∇) > Finno-Ugric: Cheremis lepa \notin lep | proto-Permian *ləp > Votyak ləp, Southwestern Votyak ləp, Ziryene ləp / lopt-, Upper Sisola Ziryene ləp, Yazvian ləp | Lappish **δapðe (by assimilation from *lap-ðe with a suffix -ðe) > Norw. Lapp dæw'ide \notin

dađ'vę, Southern Lapp daabrie, Ume Lapp h̄äb'dee, Lule Lapp tabitę, Skolt Lapp täb'dd, Kildin Lapp тāммьп tām'b(ă) || Teryugan Ostyak Ӄăрătne || Hungarian lép ||| Samoyedic: Forest Nenets Ӄapśa ↗ rabśa id. || **Altaic:** Tungusic: Orok lipče 'spleen'.

[105] *tEqmE 'sinciput, crown of the head, top, tip' > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. *✓ t̄xm > Arabic ڇاڻام - 'anterioris pars nasi (in homini et iumento)' ||| Cush.: Agaw **d̄m̄n̄h > Awngi dūmī 'top', Agaw → Ge'ez dəmāh [dəmaħ] 'head, sinciput, summit' (unless < Sem. *dimāy-, cf. Arabic dimāy- 'brain') ||? East Cush.: Oromo ڏuma (nom. ڏum-ti) 'end' || **Kartu.** *°t'q'em- (or *°t'q'ēm-) > Old Georgian t̄xem-i 'sinciput; top of the hill', Georgian t̄xem-i id. ('Scheitel, Gipfel') || **Indo-Eur.** *°teHm̄n̄ > Narrow IE *°tēm̄n̄ > proto-Slavic *tēmē / tēmen- 'crown of the head' > Serbian Church Slavonic, Old Russian ТЕМА tēmē / ТЕМЕН- temen- id., 'skull', Russian 'тēмя, Ukrainian тiм'я, Polish ciemię, Serbo-Croatian tjēme 'crown of the head', Czech témě, temeno id., 'summit' || **Altaic:** Mong. *teme-sün > Class. Mong. teme-sü 'edges of a net; border or hem of a mat' ||| Tungusic *tem̄v ~ *tuŋE 'sinciput, crown of the head' > Ilimpeya Ewenki təmułk̄n ~ timułk̄n, Ewenki of Podkamennaya-Tunguska & Yerbogachen tuŋułk̄n 'sinciput, skull', Solon tumułk̄, Lamut тəŋələk ↗ tuŋələk, Arman Lamut tuŋək ~ тəŋək, Ude тəmugə, Orochi түмаха, Sibe Manchu tuŋun 'sinciput'.

[106] *g'edi 'occiput; hind part' > **Altaic:** Mong. *gede ~ *gez̄i (< *gedi) 'nape of the neck, occiput, hind part' > Class. Mong. gede id., Class. Mong. gezige, Halha гэзэг 'nape of the neck, plait\braid of hair, pigtail, queue', Buryat гэзэгэ 'plait of hair', Western Buryat гэзэгэ 'occiput'; Middle Mong. gedergü, Monguor g_id_īerg_u ↗ gedergu 'backwards' ||| Tungusic *gedi 'occiput' > Ewenki гэдимук ↗ гэдэмүк, гэтикн id., Lamut гэдэкэ, гэдэмэк ~ гэдэмэк id., 'occiput bone', Negidal гэдэмүк, Ulcha гэки(n-) 'occiput', Ude гэдигэ id., 'nape of the neck' ||? Turkic *KEδi-n 'backwards' > Old Turkic, Chaghatay käδin 'behind', Khakas кизин кизин 'hind' (adj. of animal's legs, wheels, etc.), Sagay, Koibal Turkic, Kachin kezin, Küerik, Shor käzin 'hind part, backwards', adj. 'hind', Qazaq kein

‘behind’, Yakut kätäx ‘occiput’ || **Ham.-Sem.**: Chadic: Sura žet, Kofyar žet ‘occiput’ ||| Cush.: Agaw: Khamta ḡid ‘hind’ || East Cushitic: Sidamo gidensa, gedensa ‘after’, gedensa ‘last, the end’, gedensanni, gedensā ‘afterwards’, Somali gadāl ‘behind’ (‘diestro, indietro’) ||| ? Omotic: Gofa gedo ‘hind part’ || ? **Kartv.**: Georgian ked- ‘occiput’, ?? Megrelian kindir id.

[107] ? *go|atKE ‘popliteal space (back of the knee), armpit’ > **Ham.-Sem.**: Sem. *vat̄k > Central Jibbali vat̄ket (pl. 'vat̄t̄k̄t̄'), Eastern Jibbali vat̄ket ‘popliteal space’, Mehri v̄st̄kayt (pl. v̄st̄t̄k̄t̄n) ‘hollow at the back of the knee’ ||| ? Egyptian ḫcc.t ‘shoulder (Achsel), armpit’ || **Altaic** (acc. to Starostin) *ok‘▽ ‘popliteal space, armpit’: Middle Korean ᄂkom, Phyöngyang Korean ogim ‘popliteal space’, Kangwöndo Korean oyumpē ‘knee’ ||| Mong. *ogu-da-sun ‘armpit gore of clothes’ > Class. Mong. ogudasun id., Kalmuck oydbasn̄, ogd̄nsn̄ ‘Ärmelzwinkel’ || ?? **Indo-Eur.**: Narrow Indo-Eur. *aks- (and/or *ok-?) ‘armpit’ > Old Irish ochae ‘hollow of the armpit’ (suggests IE *ok- without *-s-?) || Germanic: Old High German uochisa ‘armpit’; with a *-n-suffix: Old High German uochsana, Anglo-Saxon oxn̄ ‘armpit’; with a *-t-suffix: Anglo-Saxon ocasta, ox̄ta, English oxter ‘armpit’, Old Norse óst, óstr ‘throat-pit’ (‘Halsgrube’) || ?p Latin axilla ‘armpit’ (with a demin. suffix -illa); metathetic variant ascilla id.; → Old Irish oxal ‘armpit’ || Armenian anut̄ (< *asnuth̄) ‘armpit’ ||| cf. also a similar word *aks-el- for ‘Achsel, shoulder’: Latin āla (< *aksla) id. (‘wing’) || Old Norse qx1, Anglo-Saxon eaxl, Old High German ahsala > German Achsel ‘shoulder’ ¶ The connection between *aks- ‘armpit’ and *aks-el- ‘shoulder’ is not clear (derivation or semantic change, and if so, in which direction? or secondary semantic association between originally unrelated stems?) ¶¶ The IE cognate is valid if Nostr. *tK̄ may yield IE *ks or IE *-s- is a suffix.

[108] *ñiKa ‘jugular vertebra, neck, nape of the neck’ > **Indo-European** *knok(k)- > Old Norse hnakki, hnakkr ‘Nacken’, Old High German hnac / hnackes ‘Nacken, Gipfel’, Middle High German genicke ‘Genick’, Anglo-Saxon hnecca ‘Nacken, Hinterkopf’, English neck || Celtic: Old Irish cnocc ‘protubérance, colline, mont’, Irish cnoc, Welsh

c_nwch ‘protubérance’, c_nwch y gwegil ‘la bosse de la nuque’, Old Breton cnoch ‘tumulus’, Middle Breton knech, Breton krec’h, kreac’h ‘hill’ || | **Uralic** *ñika ‘vertebra, joint [of a body], neck, nape of the neck’ > Finno-Ugric *ñika > Finnish nikama ‘vertebra, node of a stalk’ || Hungarian nyak ‘neck’ | Tavda Vogul näk, Northern Vogul nak ‘node of a stalk, joint’; Kazim Ostyak ñäk id. || | Samoyedic: Taz Sölqup nukt ‘collar-bone’, Narim Sölqup nug, Ketj Sölqup nukka ‘occiput’ || | **Altaic** (according to Illich-Svitych) *níka ‘neck, vertebra’ > Mongolic *nigur-sun ‘spinal marrow, spinal cord’ > Class. Mong. nigursun, Halha nigars(an), nugas, Kalmuck нүхрсн нүүрсн ‘spinal marrow’, Shira-Yughur nuryusan ‘marrow’ || | Tungusic *nik-, *nikin- ‘neck’ > Barguzin Ewenki nikin ‘neck, vertebra of the neck’, Ewenki nikinma ~ ñikinma ~ nikimna ~ ñikimna ~ nikimna ~ nikimna id., Chumikan Ewenki nikin ‘throat’, Solon mixama ~ nixima ‘neck’, Lamut ñiqbñ ~ ñikbn ~ ñikan ‘back of the neck, vertebra of the neck’, Negidal nixma ~ nikimna ~ nikma ‘neck, vertebra of the neck’, Ulcha ñiqi(n-) id., ‘back (dorsum)’, Orok nūq(n-) ‘neck part of a fish head’, nūqmnia ‘neck of a reindeer’, Class. Manchu niqde ‘a concave curve on the horse’s back (between the mane and the front part of the shoulder-blades); nape’ || | ? Turkic *jaqa ‘collar’ > Old Turkic jaqa, Turkish yaka, Azeri jaxa, Türkmen, Volga Tatar jaqa, Qazaq, Qaraqalpaq žaya, Nogay jaya, Qırğız žaqä, Altay jaqa, Uzbek jaqa, Yakut saya, Chuvash çyxa śwxa ‘collar’.

8. Kinship

It is known that kinship terms reflect the family structure within any given society. The kinship terms in Nostratic reflect exogamy, the division of the society into two exogamous moieties. Among the kinship terms we can see a clear-cut distinction between those referring to ego’s own moiety and those of the other moiety.

Some kinship terms for the other exogamous moiety: *kälujü ‘a woman of the other moiety (of the same age or younger than ego)’ (in the descendant languages the word denotes either a bride, or a female relative-in-law, or both), *küda ‘male relative-in-law (of the same generation or younger than ego)’, *šežA ‘a male relative of the other moiety’ (in the descendant languages: ‘father-in-law’, ‘son-in-law’, ‘mother’s brother’, and sim.), *t̪ix ∇ wāññ ∇

‘relative [of a younger\the same generation] of the other moiety’. The word **ŋ̩ñw̩jūš* (or **ŋ̩ñw̩jūsy*) means ‘woman of the other moiety’, as well as ‘woman’ (general term).

Kinship terms for members of ego’s moiety: **Hič|c* ∇ (or *-č|č-. *-χ|għ-) ‘father, head of a family’, **?ediN* ∇ ‘pater familias’ (or ‘owner?’), **?ar* ∇ ‘member of the clan, of the family’. The reconstruction of such kinship terms meets with difficulties for two reasons:

(1) Kinship terms for ‘father’, ‘elder brother’, ‘elder sister’, etc. (just as words for ‘mother’) often happen to be nursery words (as **?aba* ~ **?apa* ‘daddy, father’, **?emA* and **?'āy* ∇ ‘mother’, **?aqa* ‘elder brother’ [> Sem. **?ax-*]), which are built according to the same phonetic models (VCV and C₁VC₁V: *aba*, *eme*, *ata*, *mama*, *papa*, *tata*, *nene* and sim.) throughout the world (due to phonetic restrictions caused by the limited articulatory and auditory abilities of little children), so that phonetic similarity between such words in different languages is not necessarily due to their common origin: Gothic *atta* ‘father’ and Slavic **ot-ьcbъ* ‘father’ are not cognates because Gothic *t* is not the etymological counterpart of Slavic **t*.

(2) In the opposition ‘the other moiety’ vs. ‘one’s own moiety’ the latter is unmarked. More than that, in words denoting relatives of one’s own moiety the semantic feature ‘kinship term’ is unmarked, too. Therefore there is often no distinction between ‘son’ and ‘boy’, between ‘daughter’ and ‘girl’ (even in English: *child* is both a kinship term [*his child*] and a word denoting age without reference to kinship). This is true about certain proto-Nostratic words, too (e.g. **qodūj* ∇ ‘child, one’s child, to beget, to bear a child’).

[109] **kälujü* ‘a woman of the other exogamous moiety’ (‘female relative-in-law’, ‘bride’) > **Ham.-Sem.:** Semitic **kall-at-* ‘daughter-in-law, bride’ > Biblical Hebrew *קָלְלָה* *kal’lā* id., Jewish Aramaic *כָּלְתָּא* *kalla't-ā*, Syriac ‘*kalla't-ā*, Akkadian *kallātu*, (Assyrian dial.) *kallatu* ~ *kallutu* id., Ugaritic *klt* ‘Braut, mannbare Tochter’, Sabaic *hklln* (inf. of the causative verb) ‘to marry (a girl)’, Mehri *k3lōn*, Jibbali ‘*k3'lun* ‘bride, bridegroom’, Harsusi *k3lōn3t* ‘bride’, *k3lānīn* ‘bridegroom’, Soqotri ‘*k3lan* ‘bridegroom’ || **Kartvelian** **kal-* ‘young woman, maid’ > Old Georgian *kal-i* ‘maid’, Georgian *kal-i* ‘woman, daughter’, (*čemi* \ *šeni* \ *misi*) *kal-i* ‘(my\your\his) wife’ || **Indo-European** **g̩lōw-*/**g̩lōw-* ‘brother’s wife’ > Greek γάλως, Attic Greek γάλως ‘husband’s sister, brother’s wife, sister-in-law’ || Latin *glōs* (secondary reinterpretation as an -s-stem, hence gen. *glōris*) || Phrygian [Hesychius] γέλαρος ‘brother’s

wife' || Slavic **zъlt* (gen. **zъльve*) 'husband's sister' > Church Slavonic **զԵԼԵՎԱ** *zъльва*, Serbo-Croatian *zǎova*; der.: Russian **зО'ловка** id. || **Uralic**: pre-proto-Uralic (acc. to Collinder) **kälü* (but **kä1N-wN*, acc. to Itkonen and Rédei) 'female relative-in-law' > Finnish *käly* 'daughter-\sister-in-law' ('Schwägerin, Frau des Bruders, Schwester des Mannes od. der Frau'), Estonian *käli*, (dial.) *kälü* 'husband's brother, husband's brother's wife' | proto-Lappish **kä1jy-* 'daughter-in-law, sister-in-law', **kä1jy-ɛnnē* [**ɛnnē* 'mother'] 'sister-in-law' > Southern Lapp *gaalluo-*, Lule-Lapp *kälö-jie(tnē)* 'wife of husband's brother or cousin', Norw. Lapp *gālo-jædne* 'sister-in-law' (of husband's brother's wife) | proto-Mordvin **käla* > Moksha-Mordvin *кел* *kel* 'Schwägerin', (dial.) *kiyal* id., Erzya-Mordvin *kiyalо* *киялo* 'ianitrices (wives of brothers)' | Permian **keli* 'wife of husband's brother' > Udar & Luza Ziryene *kev*, Sisola & Letka Ziryene *kel*, Kochevo Permyak, Yazvian *kelya* id., Northern Votyak *kaíi* 'wife of husband's brother (older than ego)' || Teryugan Ostyak *kiči* 'wife's sister', Krasnoyarskiye Ostyak *kita* 'daughter of wife's younger brother'; in Ostyak there is contamination of this root and the reflex of Nostr. **küda* 'male relative-in-law', whence Teryugan Ostyak *kiči*, Obdorsk Ostyak *kili* 'husband of wife's sister'; Sosva Vogul *kil* 'wife's sister' ||| Samoyedic **kelb* 'relative-in-law' > Tundra Nenets *šeł*, Forest Nenets *šjeł* 'wife of husband's brother, husband of wife's sister', Somatu Enets *séri*, Bay Enets *séri* 'Schwager', Nganasan *śalun*, *sealun* 'Schwager (die Männer zweier Frauen)', Taz Sölqup *šełt* 'husband of wife's sister', Narim Sölqup *šäł* 'свояк, Schwestermann, Mann der Schwester des Mannes, Schwager' ||| Yukagir: Tundra Yukagir *kelil* 'the wife of the wife's brother or male cousin; the wife of the husband's brother or male cousin; the husband of the wife's sister or female cousin; the husband of the husband's sister or female cousin' || **Altaic** **kälin* 'female relative-in-law, bride' > Turkic **kälin* 'bride, son's wife' > Old Turkic *kälin* id., Chaghatai *kelin*, Old Xwarazmi Turkic *kälin*, Cuman *kelin*, Azeri *gälin*, Qarachay-Balqar *gelin* 'bride', Turkish *gelin*, Qazaq *келін* *kelin* 'bride, son's wife', Qaraqalpaq *kelin*, Volga Tatar *килен* *kiłın* 'son's or young brother's wife; young woman', Türkmen, Gagauz *gelin* 'bride, son's wife, young married woman', Nogay *kelin*, Bashqurt *kiłın*, Khakas *килін* *kiłın*

‘son’s wife’, Uzbek, Qırghız, Standard Altay *kelin* id., ‘young married woman’, East Turkic *kelin* ‘son’s wife, bride’, Sarı-Yugur *kelin* ~ *k’elin* ~ *k’elin* ‘bride, wife’, Tuva *kelin* ‘son’s\younger brother’s wife’, Chuvash *kin* id. ||| Tungusic **kelin* > Ewenki *kəlin*, Urmı Ewenki *kəli*, Lamut *kəli* (pl. *kəlin-il*), Orochi, Nanay *kəli*, Ulcha, Orok *kəli* / *kəlin-* ‘husband of the wife’s sister’, Negidal *kəli* ‘husband of a woman from wife’s clan’, Class. Manchu *kəli* ‘husband of wife’s elder sister’, ‘brother-in-law’, *xəxe kəli* ‘wife of the husband’s brother’ (*xəxe* means ‘woman’) ||| **Dravidian:** Northern Drav. **kall̩i* ‘female relative-in-law’ > Kurukh *xall̩i* ‘father’s younger brother’s wife’, Malto *qali* ‘mother’s sister’ ◇ The meanings ‘bridegroom’, ‘male relative-in-law’ are demonstrably secondary and are due either to broadening of meaning (by eliminating the semantic element of female sex) or to back formation (as in Harsusi).

[110] ****küda*** ‘a man of the other moiety’ (→ ‘male relative-in-law’) > **Uralic** (according to Illich-Svitych) **küδü* > Finnish *k y t y* ‘husband’s\wife’s brother’, Veps *küdu*, Estonian *küdi*, (dial.) *küdü* ‘husband’s brother’ ||| Ob-Ugric: proto-Ostyak **kūl̩v* ‘wife’s sister’s husband’ (‘wife’s [younger] sister’) > Obdorsk Ostyak *kili* ‘wife’s sister’s husband’, Vakh Ostyak *küli* id., *nij-küli* ‘wife’s sister’ (*nij-* means ‘woman’); in Ostyak there is contamination of this root and the reflex of Nostr. **kälüjü* ‘a woman of the other moiety’, whence Teryugan Ostyak *kīči*, Kazim Ostyak *kīči* ‘wife’s sister’s husband, wife’s sister’ ||| **Altaic:** Turkic *k’üδä-gü* ‘younger sister’s husband, daughter’s husband’ (-*gü* is an adjectival suffix) > Old Turkic *küδäš-gu*, Chaghatay *küyäv*, Cuman *küyägü* ‘daughter’s husband’, Old Qipchaq *küyägü*, Xwarezmi Turkic *küδägü* ‘bridegroom’, Turkish *güney*, Gagauz *guyä*, Türkmen, Qumuq, Nogay *giyw*, Uzbek *kyeş* *kuymaw*, Volga Tatar *kiyä* *kiyäj*, Bashqurt *kejəy* *kıyäj*, Qaraqalpaq *küyej*, Qırghız *küyő*, East Turkic *küyoṣul* ‘daughter’s husband, bridegroom’ (East Turkic *oṣul* means ‘son’), Qazaq *küyej* ‘bridegroom’, Standard Altay *küyü*, Khakas *kızö*, Tuva *kydəz* *küdə* ‘daughter’s husband’, Chuvash *kərү* (gen. *kərəv-ən*) id., ‘bridegroom’ ||| Mongolic **quda* ‘father of one’s son-in-law or daughter-in-law’ (in pl.: ‘the heads of two families related through the marriage of their children’) >

Middle Mongolian **χуда** id. ('verschwägert, Schwager'), Class. Mong. **χуда**, Halha **хүд**, Buryat **худа**, Monguor **гүдээ** id., Kalmuck **худээ** 'people related through the marriage of their children' || ? **Kartvelian** ***kwis̃-al-** / ***kwis̃-]-** 'wife's sister's husband' > Georgian **kvisl-**, Georgian (Mtiuluri & Mokheuri dialects) **kviseli**, Megrelian **kvishil-**, Svan **me-kwš-ēl**, Lentekh Svan **mo-kwš-äl** ¶¶ According to sound laws we expect Kartvelian ***kwid-**. The observed Kartv. stem ***kwis̃-al-** may have originated from the genitive ****kwid-iš-** + suffix *-al- (with a cluster simplification *-dš- > *-š-).

[111] ***šežA** 'a relative of the other moiety' ('father\son-in-law', 'mother's brother', and sim.) > **Kartvelian** ***siže-** 'son-in-law' > Georgian **sizer-**, Megrelian **si(n)ža-** & **sinda** id., Laz **siža-** id., 'bridegroom', Svan **čiže** 'son-in-law' || **Ham.-Sem.**: Cushitic: East Cush. ***səz-** 'relative-in-law' > Somali **sóddog** 'father-in-law', **sóddóh** 'mother-in-law', Rendille **seyyoħ ~ soyyoħ** 'mother-in-law', **seyyoħ** 'father-in-law', proto-Boni ***siddáħ** 'mother-in-law', 'sister-in-law' > Boni **siddah** & **soddóh** id., Oromo **sodd-a** 'in-law' (↳ Arbore **soddá** id.), Arbore **soh** id., Gollango **soqo** 'son-in-law' || | ? Egyptian **εζ.τγ** 'Kind, Zögling' || **Uralic** ***čečä** 'uncle' > Finnish **setä** 'father's brother', ? Estonian (dial.) **seidi** 'mother's brother' | proto-Lappish ***ćecē** 'father's brother' > South. Lapp **tjiedsie**, Lule-Lapp **tjiehtiē, tjähhtiē**, Norw. Lapp **čæccæ**, Kildin Lapp **ciečč** 'father's younger brother' | Erzya-Mordvin **čiče** 'elder brother-in-law (sister's husband)', Moksha-Mordvin **ščava ~ ščava** 'mother's mother', **ščäťa** 'mother's father' | proto-Cheremis ***čüčə ~ *čečä** > Lowland Cheremis **чүчү չւշտ**, Highland Cheremis **чүчү չեշտ** 'mother's brother', East. Cheremis **ćūćö ~ tūćö** | proto-Permian ***ččəž** 'mother's brother' > Ziryene **чоž ेož**, Letka & Udar Ziryene **čož**, Votyak **чүжмурт չւշմուրտ** id., **чүжбүнбы չւշբստ** 'mother's father' || Lower Konda & Sosva Vogul **šäš**, Sosva Vogul **sasiž** 'uncle', Pelimka Vogul **šäššə-m** 'my uncle' || | Samoyedic ***cicä** 'mother's younger brother' > Tundra Nenets **тидя**, Obdorsk dial. **ćidé**, Nganasan (der.) **tičida**, Taz Sölqup **tičtä** 'mother's younger brother' ¶¶ In the prehistory of Uralic we may suppose an assimilation and dissimilation of sibilants: ≈ ***šežA** > ****ćecA** > ***čečä**.

[112] ***h₂w₃n** ‘relative [of a younger\the same generation] of the other moiety’ (> ‘brother/sister-in-law, son-in-law’) > **Ham.-Semitic:** Egyptian **hw-n** ‘boy, young man; (one’s) child, son’, **hw-n.t** ‘girl, virgin’, **hw-n** v. ‘become young’ || **Uralic** ***wäñN** > [1] Finno-Ugric ***wäñjü** ‘daughter’s husband, younger brother’ > Finnish **vävij**, arch. **väy** ‘daughter’s husband’, Estonian **väi** id. | proto-Lapp ***vivz** id. > Norw. Lapp **vivvå** id. | Moksha Mordvin **ov** id. | Highland Cheremis **wiñżə**, Eastern Cheremis **weñe** id. ||| Samoyedic ***wänb** ‘relative-in-law’ > Tundra Nenets **yiy**, Forest Nenets **wiy** ‘younger relative’s husband’, Enets **bī** ‘brother-in-law, sister’s husband’, Nganasan **bij-i,-n** ‘daughter’s husband’, Taz Sölqup **kuenä**, Narim Sölqup **kuenek**, Karasino Sölqup **kuenaq** ‘wife’s brother’, Tim Sölqup **kuən-åg** ‘svåger, svägerska’, Lower Taz Sölqup **kw̥ñnåg** ‘stepson, sister’s husband’ ||| ? Ural. ***want** ‘bridegroom, relative-in-law’ > Kildin Lapp **vūntem** ‘Freier, Bräutigam’ ||| Samoyedic: Tundra Nenets **yanne**, Forest Nenets **wennī** ‘relative-in-law (durch Heirat verwandt, verschweigert)’ || **Altaic:** Tungusic ***bene-** ‘wife’s sibling’ > Ewenki **bənər**, Zeya & Süm Ewenki **bənə** ‘wife’s brother, wife’s younger sister’, Lamut **benər** ‘wife’s\husband’s younger sibling’, Negidal **bənə** ‘wife’s younger sibling’, Orochi **bənə** id., ‘wife’s younger sister’s husband’, Ude **bənə**, Ulcha **bənəli**, **bənər** ‘wife’s younger brother’, Nanay **bənər-** ‘wife’s younger male cousin; nephew’ || ?? **Drav.** ***vanna** ‘(elder) brother’s wife’ > Kolami **vanna** ‘brother’s wife’, ? Pengo **oni** ‘elder brother’s wife’, ? Konda **oni** id., ‘maternal uncle’s daughter (older than person concerned)’ (unless the word of the Drav. languages is a loan from Prakrit **vahuññī** ‘husband’s elder brother’s wife’).

[113] ***n̥iñu|uš** or ***n̥iñu|ušy** ‘woman’ (general term), ‘woman of the other moiety’ > **Hamito-Semitic:** Semitic ***niš-** ‘woman’ (used in pl. and with pl. endings only) > Arabic **nis-ūna** ‘women’, **nisā?** id. (and through metanalysis: ✓ **nsw**, whence **niswān-un** ‘women’, **nisw-at-un** ~ **nusw-at-un** ‘woman’), Syriac **nēš(š)-ē** ‘women’, Hebrew **מִשְׁנָה'š-ēm** (***ā** < ***a**, an apophonic ***a**-plural from ***niš-**, cp. ***ban-** ‘sons’ — a plural stem correlating with ***bin-** ‘son’), Akkadian **niš-ū** ‘people’ (-ū is a pl. marker; semantic contamination with ***?inaš-** ‘person’ — ***?unāš-** ‘people’) ||| **Cushitic:** proto-

Agaw *^ŋs-at- ‘woman’ > Bilin *ñ's-ñrī* adj. ‘female’, pl. *ñ's-aw* ~ *ñ's-ō*, Khamir 'ōs-rē id. ||| Central Chadic: Mandara gr.: Dghwede *níšé*, Gava *núsà*, Guduf *nósł*, Glavda *núsà* ‘woman’ | Tera *nuš* id. || **Kartv.** *nusa ‘son’s wife’ > Laz nusa, Megrelian nosa id., Old Georgian nusa-dia ‘uncle’s wife’ (lit. ‘grand daughter-in-law’) ¶¶ The Kartv. word may be either a loan from IE or an ancient Kartv. inherited lexeme. In the latter case *nusa must go back to pre-Kartv. **nuś ∇ < **nušya < **nusya < *ññüuya or *ññüysa || **Indo-Eur.** *snuso-s ‘son’s wife’ > Crimean Gothic *schnos*, Old High German *snur*, Anglo-Saxon *snoru*, Old Norse *snor* ~ *snør* id. || Greek νύός id. || Armenian *nu* id. || Latin *nurus*, -ūs id. (morphological reinterpretation on analogy with *socrus*, -ūs ‘mother-in-law’) || Old Indian *snu'śā* ‘son’s wife’ || proto-Slavic *snъxa id. > Old Church Slavonic **снъха** *snъxa*, Russian **чо'ха** || Albanian *nuse* ‘bride’ ||| ?? Hittite *nasarti/a-* ‘concubine’. ¶¶ The unexpected initial *s may be explained by phrasal metanalysis: in phrases *...-(0)s nuso-s ‘(somebody)’s son’s wife’ (where *-(0)s is the genitive ending of the preceding noun) *-s was reinterpreted as belonging to the following noun: *...-(0)s nuso-s > *...-(0)s snuso-s.

[114] *Hić|çx ∇ or *-ć|ç-, *-v|g|h- ‘father, head of a family’ (→ or ← ‘master, lord’) > ? **Ham.-Sem.**: Semitic: Ge’ez *ʔagz̥t̥?* ‘lord’ (? ↣ Ge’ez *ʔgz̥?* v. ‘dominate, master’) || **Indo-European**: Hittite *isxa* ~ *esxa* ‘master, lord’ || **Uralic** *ičā ‘father’ > Finnish *išä*, Estonian *iša* id. | proto-Lappish *zčē ‘father’ > North. Lapp *ač'če*, Skolt Lapp *ečč*, Kildin Lapp *ɛčč*, Ter Lapp *yiečče* id. | Highland Cheremis *zžä*, Ufa Cheremis *ižä*, Malmižh dial. *ižä* ‘elder brother; father’s younger brother’ || Lower Konda & Pelimka Vogul *äš* ‘mother’s brother’ | Old Hungarian *ős* ‘grandfather’, Hungarian *ős* ‘ancestor’ ||| Samoyedic *eysä ‘father’ > Tundra Nenets *ñisčj*, Forest Nenets *ñišš:əš*, Nganasan *jase*, 'десы', Enets *eše*, Taz Sölqup *zst* id. ||| **Altaic**: Turkic: Sarı-Yughur *iše* ‘owner, master (хозяин)’ ||| Mongolic *ežen ‘lord, master’ > Middle Mongolian *ežen* ‘seigneur, maître; Herr’, Class. Mong. *ežen*, Halha *эзэн* ‘lord, master, ruler, owner’.

[115] ***pediN_N** ‘pater familias’ (or ‘owner?’) > **Ham.-Sem.**: Semitic ***padān-** ‘lord, pater familias’ > Hebrew **רָדֹן** ‘lord’, Phoenician **𐤌ದּוֹן** (> Greek **Ἄδων**), Punic **لَادُون** (with **λ-** ‘to’) ‘to the lord’, Ugaritic **𐎣দּוֹן**, [in Akkadian script] **աదանս** ‘father’, der.: Eblaite **a-da-na-du** **padāntu(m)** ‘signoria, padronanza’, with the feminine suffix *-at-: Phoenician, Palmyrian **ϙδτ** (<***padattu** < Semitic ***padān-atu**) ‘lady’ ||| Egyptian **ἰδης** ‘Vertreter, Verwalter’, **ἰδεῖν** ‘vertreten, verwalten’ ||| **Altaic** ***edin** ‘master, lord, owner’ > Turkic ***ədī** ‘lord, host’ > Old Turkic **idī** ‘lord’, [Qutadgu Bilig] **idä** id., Qizil Äzï ‘Chinese emperor’, Lobnor **idi** ‘host’ ||| Mongolic ***ezin** (< ***edin**) > Middle Mongolian **өзөн** ‘owner, lord, ruler, master’, **جینو** آزىزىن-ۇ ‘(of the) owner’, Class. Mong. **өзөн**, Halha **өзөн** ‘owner, lord’, Kalmuck **өзң** id., Dagur **азын** ‘lord, master, owner, king’ ||| Tungusic ***edin** ‘husband’ > Ewenki, Negidal **զդ**, Lamut, Orok **զծ**, Ulcha **զծ(n)-**, Nanay **զծի** id., Orochi **զծ** ‘male animal, husband’.

[116] ***remA** ‘mother’ > **Hamito-Semitic**: Semitic ***rimm-** id. (pl. ***rimmā'h-ät-**) > Hebrew **רֵמֶם** / **רֵמֶת** **רִמְמָה** **רִמְמָת** **רִמְמָתָה** **רִמְמָתָה** ‘my mother’), pl. **רִמְמָה**, Phoenician **રમ**, Ugaritic **ሩም** ***rumm-**, pl. **ሩምհ**, Jewish Aramaic, Syriac **ܪିମ୍ମା**, Arabic **رِمِّمَ**, Epigraphic South Arabian **رم**, pl. **رمات**, Ge'ez **ರେମ**, Mehri **ହାମ**, indef. **ରେମ**, Harsusi **ହାମ**, Central Jibbali **ରେମ**, Soqotri **ରେମ-** (with pronominal suffixes), Ge'ez **ରେମମ**, pl. **ରେମମାତ**, Akkadian **ଉରମ୍ମା** ‘mother’ ¶ The variant with u is due to the assimilating influence of mm ||| Berber **ڻيڻما** ‘my mother’ > Kabyle, Beni-Menacer, Jerba, Sened **يَامِّة**, Ghadamsi **يَامِّة** ~ **إِمَّة**, Tashelhit **ڻيڻما** ~ **إِمَّة**, Beni-Snus, Beni-Iznasen, Rif, Sravr Senhazha, Kabyle **إِمَّة** ‘my mother’; the form **ڻيڻما** may go back to ***y-** ‘my’ + ***rimm_N** ‘mother’ ||| ? Highland East Cush. ***ama** > Burji **امَا** ~ **ଅମା** ‘mother, woman, wife’, Darasa, Sidamo, Alaba **اما**, Hadiya **اما**, **ଅମୋଦୋ** ‘mother’, **ଅମା(ତି)** ‘mater familias’, Kambatta **ଅମାତା**, **ଅମାଯ୍ୟେ** (vocative) ‘mother’ ¶ This Highland East Cush. word may be an independent Lallwort without etymological connection with the Semitic and Berber words ||| ? Chadic: Central Chadic: Margi **ଅମା**, Kilba **اما**, Wamdiu **ଉମା** || East Chadic: Kera **ଅମା** ‘mother’; this Chadic word may likewise be an independent nursery word ||| **Uralic** ***emä** ‘mother, female’ > Finnish **emä** ‘female, mother, womb’, **emäsika** ‘sow’,

Estonian **emä** ‘mother, womb’, proto-Lappish ***ɛmē** ‘womb’ > South. Lapp **ɥiemie** id. || Old Hungarian **eme** ‘female (animal), Hungarian (dial.) **eme** (acc. **emé**) ‘sow’, der.: Hungarian **embér** ‘person’, (dial.) ‘man’ ||| Samoyedic ***emä** ‘mother’ > Tundra Nenets **небя небе**, Forest Nenets **ńemé**, Somatu Enets **ɛ**, (+ pron. suffix 1 sg.) **ɛb_ō**, Nganasan **níame** | Taz Sölqup **эмт**, Lower Taz Sölqup **ämä**, Turukhansk Sölqup **эмт** ‘mother’ | Koibal **имадь**, Mator **иммэда** ‘his mother’, **имамъ** ‘my mother’, Taigi **емма**, **емме** ‘mother’ || **Altaic** ***eme** ‘mother, woman, female’ > Turkic ***ämä** ‘mother, female’ (> ‘old woman’) > Qırghız **eme** ‘old woman’, Chuvash **ama** ‘mother, female’ ||| Mongolic ***eme** ‘woman, female’ > Middle Mongolian **eme**, **eme gü'ün** ‘woman, wife’ (**gü'ün** means ‘person’), Class. Mong. **eme** ‘woman, wife, female’, Halha **em** ‘woman’, Buryat **eme** id., Class. Oirat **eme** ‘woman, female, lady’, Dongxiang **эмз(kun)**, Baoan **эмз (kuŋ)** ‘woman’, Monguor **imu** in **χara imu** (‘black woman’), ritual name given by a girl to herself in front of her parents the day of her marriage, Dagur **emehe aw-** ‘to marry (a woman)’ ||| Tungusic ***em'e** ‘mother, woman, female’ > Ewenki **эмгдз** ‘female elk’, Solon **e'mo** ‘mother’, **emr'ge** ‘wife’, Kur-Urmi Nanay **эмхэ** ‘mother-in-law’, Class. Manchu **eme** ‘mother’, **emxe** ‘wife’s mother’, **emeke** ‘husband’s mother’, Sibe Manchu **eme** ‘mother’, **emxe** ‘husband’s mother’, **emhe** ‘wife’s mother’ ||| Korean: Middle Korean **ám**, Phyöngyang Korean **am** ◇ Words shaped as **a(m)ma** in individual IE languages (Old High German **amma** ‘mother’, Old Norse **amma** ‘nun’, Gheg Albanian **'amë** ‘mother’), Elamite **am-ma** ‘mother’ and Drav. ***amma** ‘mother’ (> Tamil **ammā**, Malayalam, Kannada, Telugu, Tulu **amma**, Kolami **amma**, Brahui **ammā** ‘mother’, Konda **ama** ‘grandmother’, Pengo, Manda, Kui **ama** ‘father’s sister’, Kuwi **amma** ‘aunt’) are unlikely to belong here, they are better explained as independent Lallwort-creations.

[117] ***ṛ'ā'y** (or ***h'ā'y**?) ‘mother’ (originally a nursery word) (→ ‘female’): **Ham.-Sem.:** Cushitic ***?ay(y)-** > East Cushitic ***?āyy-** ‘mother’ > Somali **āy-o** ‘stepmother’, Rendille **'āy-o** ‘mother’ (vocative), Boni **ā'y-ō**, Baiso **ā ~ āy-o**, Oromo **āyy-ō**, Konso **āy-ā** ‘mother’, Saho **āy-a** ‘older sister’, Hadiya **ayy-a** ‘sister’, **ay-minē** ‘mater familias’, Burji **āy'y-ē** ‘mother,

mother's sister, father's brother's wife' || South Cushitic: Iraqw *ayo*, Alagwa, Burungi *iyo* 'mother' || ? **Indo-Eur.**: proto-Germanic **aɪθɪ̄* 'mother' > Gothic *aip̥ei* id., Old Norse *eid̥a* id., Old High German *fuotar-eid̥i* 'Amme', Middle Low German *eide* 'mother'; Germanic **aɪθɪ̄* → Finnish *äiti*, Estonian *eit* (gen. *eide*), Lule-Lapp *eiti*, Norw. Lapp *æi'de* 'mother' || ?? **Uralic**: Samoyedic: Kamassian *iyå, yå, ya*, Enets *ê?*, *e?* 'mother' || **Dravidian** **āy* 'mother' > Tamil *āy*, *āyi*, Kannada *āyi*, Kolami *ā'y*, Gadba *āya~aya*, Gondi *ayal*, Konda, Pengo, Manda *aya*, Kui *aja* 'mother', Kuwi *a(j)ya* 'woman', Kurukh *ayo* 'mother', Malto *ayya* 'my mother'.

[118] ?? **paba* ~ **papa* 'daddy, father' (a nursery word) > **Ham.-Sem.**: Semitic **pab-* 'father' (nom. **pab-u,-um*, acc. **pab-a,-am*, gen. **pab-i,-im*) > Biblical Hebrew *'pab*, st. c. *pəb̄i*, st. pronominalis (with pron. suffixes) — *pəb̄i-/pəb̄i-* (e.g. *pəb̄i-kā* 'thy father', *pəb̄i-'kem* 'your (pl.) father'), Phoenician *p̥b*, st. c. *pab̄i*, Ugaritic *p̥b*, Biblical Aramaic **ܒܰܒܰ** * **pab*, st. pron.: *p̥b̄uk* 'thy father', Jewish West Aramaic *pab'ba*, Syriac *pabbā*, Arabic *pab-*, st. c. *pabū / pabā / pab̄i*, st. pron. *pabū- / pabā- / pab̄i-*, Sabaic *p̥b*, Mehri def. *'hayb*, pl. *'hayb*, indef. *'t̥b*, Harsusi *hayb*, pl. *ħōb*, Jibbali C *riy*, Soqotri *piyf-*, Akkadian *abu(m)*, with personal suffixes: *abū-, abī-* ||| East Cushitic **pabb-*/**abb-* 'father' > Afar *abba*, Somali *ābbe*, Rendille *aba*, Baiso *abbo*, Oromo *ābbā?*, Konso *āppa*, Gidole *āppā*, Gawwada *āppa*; this root may be the source of East Cushitic **pab-(-uyy-, -iyy-)* 'maternal uncle' (derived from the word for 'father', cp. Latin *patruus*) > Afar *abo*, abu, Somali *ab-tí*, Oromo *abuya*, Konso *abuyyāta*, Gidole *apa*, *apuyy*, Dulay *apuyya*, *apiyya*, Burji *abuyyā* ||| Chadic ≈ **nb-* (~ **ap-*) 'father' > West Chadic **nb/p-* 'father' > Hausa *übá*, Tsagu *òbán*, Pa'a *ábatì*, *ábanáni*, Jimbin, Diri *àbá*, Jimi *abawa*, Geji *ábà*, Ngizim *àfák*, Bade *àfán* || Central Chadic: ? Nzangi *ābá* (independent creation as a nursery word?), Buduma *abú*, *àpá*, *àpá*, Logone *àbabá*, Musgu *ap*, Musgum-Pus *àpí*, Zime-Batna *àsba* || East Chadic: Somray *àb*, Tumak *òwà*, ? Barein *ābá* (independent creation?) || **Altaic** **āba* ~ **āpa* 'father, grandfather' > Turkic **aba* 'father, uncle, father's father' ('bear') > Old Turkic *aba* 'father, ancestor, bear', Chaghatai *aba* 'father', Türkmen (dial.) *aba*, Turkish (dial.) *aba*, *appa*,

Azeri (dial.) *aba*, East Turkic (Ili) *aba* ‘father’, Khakas *oba*, Chuvash *үбә* *übə* ‘bear’ ||| Mongolic **aba* ‘father’ > Class. Mong. *ابو*, Halha *اۋ*, *اۋا* ‘father, grandfather’, esp. applied to an old father (endeavouring), Class. Oirat-Mongolian *ବାବା* ‘father, daddy’, Kalmuck *ଆବ* *ବାବ୍* id., Monguor *ବାବା*, Dongxiang *aba*, Baoan *ବାବେ*; der.: Mongolic **aba-gay* ‘father’s younger brother’ > Middle Mongolian *abayā* ‘paternal uncle’, Class. Mong. *اباگا* id., Halha *اۋغا* id., Class. Oirat *اباگا* id., Kalmuck *اپغى* id., Monguor *اۋۇ* ‘father’s younger uncle’ ||| Tungusic: Negidal *apa* ‘grandfather’ ||| Korean **ଅପି* > Middle Korean *ଅପି* ‘father’ || | **Dravidian** **appa* ‘father’ > Tamil *appan*, *appu* ‘father’, Malayalam *appan*, Kannada *appa*, Kodagu *appə* ‘father’, Tulu *appa*, *appə* affix of respect added to proper names of men, Telugu *appa* ‘father’, Gondi *ଅପୋରାଜାଳ* ‘father’, ? *majpo* ‘my father’, ? *mi-apo* ‘thy father’, Konda *aposi* ‘father’ (with reference to the 3rd person) ◇ The common origin of the Ham.-Sem., Alt. and Drav. stems is questionable, since each of them may be an independent nursery word creation. The Lallwort origin may be responsible for the variability *-b- ~ *-p-.

[119] **qogul*||V ‘child, one’s child, to beget, to bear a child’ > **Ham.-Sem.:** ? Sem. **rigul-* ‘calf’ ||| Cush. ≈*√*?kʷl* (or *√*?kl*) id. > Agaw **qʷər-* / **?qʷər-* v. ‘beget, child’ (< Early Agaw **√*?kʷl?*) > Bilin *?xʷra* ‘boy’, f. *?qʷra* ‘daughter’, pl. *qʷər* ‘children’, Khamir (*զ*)*xʷər* ‘child’, pl. *զqʷər*, Kemant *xʷər* ‘child’, Bilin *?xʷär-*, Khamir *չxʷər-* v. ‘bear, beget’; Early Agaw **√*?kʷl* → Tigray *կʷərla* ‘child’ || Highland East Cush. **kəl-* v. ‘give birth’ > Sidamo, Kambatta *կəl-*, Hadiya *կər-* v. ‘give birth’ (of animals), Burji *կəl-* v. ‘give birth’, *կালա* ‘child’ || | **Kartv.:** Lashkhi Svan *զլաw-* ‘child, boy’ || | **Altaiic:** Turkic **ogul* ‘offspring, child’ (‘male child’) > Old Turkic *օγول* ‘offspring, child’, Chaghatay *օγول* ‘son’, Türkmen, Azeri, East Turkic, Sarı-Yughur, Lobnor, Halaj *օγول*, Turkish *օğul*, Qızıl *օγıl*, Uzbek *ওঢিল*, Qırghız, Altay *Ӧل*, Qaraqalpaq *ول*, Qazaq *Ӧل*, Volga Tatar, Bashqurt *ول*, Tuva *ول*, Tofalar *ول*, Yakut *Ӧول*, Old Bulghar *وول* *ۋال*, Chuvash *ывăл* *ивъл* ‘son’, Khakas (Sagay, Kachin) *ول*, Qızıl *օগول* ‘young man, son’ || | **Gilyak:** Amur Gilyak *օলা* ‘son’.

[120] **parv* ‘member of the clan’ > **Ham.-Sem.**: Semitic **par₁v₂y-* > Ugaritic *ȝry* ‘relative, member of the clan’ ||| Egyptian *ȝry* ‘belonging to; comrade’, Demotic Egyptian *ȝry* ‘comrade’, Coptic: Bohairic *ȝr* ‘comrade, friend’, Sahidic *erīw*, Bohairic *ariu*, *eriu* ‘comrades’ ||| Cushitic: Beja *paraw* ‘friend’ || **Indo-European**: Narrow Indo-European **aryo-* ‘member of the tribe’ > Old Indian *'aryah* ‘master of the house’, *ar'yah* ‘(hospitable) lord’, *'ār(i)yā-* ‘an Aryan person’, Avestan *aīryō*, Old Persian *ariya-* ‘Median, Aryan (person)’; proto-Indo-Iranian **arya-* → Finno-Ugric (or Finno-Permian) **orya* ‘slave’ > Finnish *orja* ‘slave’, Estonian *ori* ‘slave, bondsman’ | Erzya-Mordvin *uře*, Moksha-Mordvin *ype* *uře* ‘slave, servant’ | proto-Permian **ver* ‘slave’ (*'vir*) > Old Permian *wēr* ‘servant, slave’, Ziryene *pi-ver* ‘husband’s brother’ (*pi* ‘son’), Ziryene (dial.) *ver-ćeri* ‘male fish’ (*ćeri* ‘fish’), Votyak *var*, *war* ‘slave, servant’ || Old Irish *aire* ‘free person’ (> ‘chief, prince’) || ? **Ural.**: Ugric **arv* or **arwa* ‘relative belonging to one’s mother’s clan’, ‘mother’s (younger) brother’ > Old Hungarian *ara* ‘brother’, (early 18th c.) ‘Schwiegertochter’, Hungarian *ara* ‘bride’ (attested from 1792; a lexical innovation in the framework of the Hungarian ‘language renewal’) | Ob-Ugric: Kazim Ostyak *wɔr-ti* ‘mother’s younger brother, his male descendants, his son’, Northern (Obdorsk) Ostyak *or-ti*, *or-di* ‘mother’s brother’; Middle Lozva Vogul *oår*, Northern Vogul *å:r* ‘mother’s relative’.

9. The realm of the supernatural

Once I was asked by a journalist: ‘Is there a Nostratic word for God?’. I had to disappoint the gentleman: in the Nostratic lexical stock this concept has not been detected. The words for gods in the descendant languages usually go back to the name of a natural phenomenon associated with the deity in question. Indo-European **dyeus* (> Greek *Ζεύς*, Old Indian *dyaus* ‘god’, etc.) originally means ‘daylight’, **dejwos* (> Latin *deus*, Old Indian *dēvas*, Lithuanian *diēvas* ‘god’) goes back to an adjective ‘that of the daylight’. Finno-Ugric **yuma* (whence Finnish *jumala*, Estonian *jumal*, Highland Cheremis *yəmə* ‘God’) originally means ‘sky’ (> ‘heaven’), whence Ufa Cheremis *yumo* ‘sky’.

But Nostratic is rich in words denoting magic activity:

[121] ***parba** ‘to make magic, cast spells’ > **Ham.-Sem.**: ? Sem. *✓**rb** v. ‘be cunning’ > Biblical Hebrew אָרְבָּה ✓**rb** v. ‘lie in wait, prepare an ambush’ (← v. ‘be cunning’), Official Aramaic אָרְבָּה ✓**rb** ‘ambush’, Safa’itic **mwr̥b** ‘intrigant, comploteur’, Thamudic **wrb** ‘se mettre en embuscade’ || **Uralic**: Finno-Ugric *arpa > Finnish **arpa** (gen. **arvan**) ‘lot, magic stick or any other magic tool for finding hidden things, soothsaying, etc.’, **arpa-mies** ‘soothsayer’ (**mies** is ‘man’), **arpō**- v. ‘cast lots’, Estonian **arp** ‘lot, magic’, Livonian **ařbī** ‘witch’, proto-Lapp *✓**ōrpē** > Norwegian Lapp (after Friis) **vuorbbe** ‘sors secunda, fortuna; anulus oricalchi, in membranam tympani magici, quoties pulsabatur, imponendus’, Norw. Lapp **vuoribe** ‘each of the two or more pieces of wood, stones etc., used by persons who are going to cast lots about something; lot; destiny’, Lule Lapp **vuoripē** ‘Glück, Los, Geschick’ || **Altaiic**: Turkic ***arba-** v. ‘make magic, cast spells’ > Old Turkic **arva-**, Chaghatai, Qırghız, Qaraqalpaq, Bashkurt, Khakas **arba-**, East Turkic **arba-čarva-**, Sarı-Yughur **arva-** id., Qazaq **arba-** v. ‘tempt, seduce, try to win smb. over by deceit’, Yakut **arbā-** v. ‘flatter, exaggerate’, Old Turkic **arviš** ‘a magic spell, or charm’ (→ Votyak **urveš**, **urbeč** ‘remedy for evil eye’ ?), Chaghatai **arviš-či** ‘sorcerer’ (a Turkic — most probably, Bulghar — word is probably the source of Votyak **urveš**, **urbeč** ‘Waldgeist; a person inflicting illness by magic’, Hungarian **orvos**, [dial.] **óros**, **órvás**, **órvos**, **urus** ‘physician’, as well as of Bulgarian **врач** ‘sorcerer’ and Russian **врач** ‘physician’).

[122] ***ʕa'lāv** ‘to burn (esp. sacrifices), use magic means (sacrifices, magic formulae etc.) to produce a particular result’ > **Ham.-Sem.**: Sem. *°✓**ly** v. ‘infringe, act perversely’ > Syriac ✓**ly** in **ʔa'lātā** v. ‘act perversely’, **ʕa'lāyā** ‘scelus, injuria’; Sem. *✓**lw** v. ‘burn a sacrifice’ > Biblical Hebrew **נִזְבֵּחַ ~ נִזְבְּחָה** ~ **נִזְבְּחָה**, Biblical Aramaic **נִזְבְּחָה** **נִזְבְּחָתָה** ‘burnt-offering, holocaust’, Imperial Aramaic (Elephantine) **נִזְבְּחָה**, Samaritan Aramaic **נִזְבְּחָה**, Jewish Aramaic **נִזְבְּחָתָא** **נִזְבְּחָתָה** ‘sacrifice’, Syriac **نِزَّبْدَة** **نِزَّبَتَة** ‘offering, holocaust, sacrifice; altar’, Palmyrene **أَلَّاتَة** **أَلَّاتَة** ‘altar’ || **Indo-European** ***H'el-** (≈ ***H'a1-**) v. ‘burn, burn sacrifices’ > Old Indian **alātam** ‘a fire-brand, coal’ (← *‘burnt’) || ? Greek [Hesychius] **ἀλάθη** ‘coal’ || Latin **altaria** n. pl. ‘altar (for

sacrifice)' (< *al-t-āli-), **ad-oleō** 'I am burning (a sacrifice)', Umbrian **uṛetu** 'in order to burn' (< Italic *ol-) || Swedish **älä** v. 'flame' || ? **Kartvelian** ***h₁al-** v. 'flame', 'flame' > Georgian **al-i** 'flame', **al-** (1 sg. v-a-al-eb) 'aufflammen lassen', **al-d-eba** 'flammt auf', Inglouri Georgian **hal-** v. n. 'flame, burn', Svan **häl** & **hal** 'flame' || **Uralic**: Finno-Ugric ***a1N-** v. 'exercise magic forces, sacrifice' > Old Hungarian **áld-** v. 'sacrifice', Hungarian **áld-** v. 'bless', **áldoz-** v. 'sacrifice', **áldozás** 'holy communion', proto-Ostyak ***al-** > Vakh Ostyak **alil-** v. 'curse; to scold', **aliltə köl** 'Fluchwort, malediction', **alim-** v. 'curse, call down curses upon' | Erzya-Mordvin **alta-** v. 'promise, devote', (acc. to Jevsevjev) v. 'doom' | Cheremis **ulδa-**, **ulte-** v. 'prey, pronounce a prayer' || **Altaic**: Turkic ***āl** > Old Turkic **āl** 'device' (esp. 'dishonourable device'), 'deceit, guile, dirty trick', Turkish (dial.) **al** 'ruse, trick', Türkmen **āl** id., Azeri (dial.) **al** 'ruse, deceit, a lie', Chaghatay, Uighur **āl** 'Schlauheit, List, Betrug, Strategie'; ? Turkic ***alqa-** v. 'bless, praise, conjure (supernatural spirits)' > Old Turkic **alqa-** v. 'praise' (both in a religious and the ordinary sense), v. 'bless', Qumuq, Qırghız, Qazaq **alqa-**, Tuva **alqā-** v. 'bless', Standard Altay **alqa-** v. 'bless, praise, thank', Khakas **alqā-** v. 'bless, thank', Yakut **alqā-** v. 'bless, praise, pray, conjure (supernatural spirits), cast a spell' → Ewenki **alga-** v. 'bless, pray', **alga** 'blessing' || ?? Korean **alcin alcin hǎda** 'to deceive, adulate'.

[123] ***šotN** 'to exercise magic force' (> 'to curse, bless') > **Ham.-Sem.:** Sem. ***✓ ſw̥t** (> ***✓ ſyt**) v. 'harm by magic' > Arabic **šiwaṭ-** ~ **šuwāṭ-** 'calomnie, injure', **✓ ſyṭ** (2nd form) v. 'expose (smbd.) to death, to ruin'; Semitic ***✓ ſtn** v. 'bear ill-will, be hostile, attack, bear ill-will by words, accuse' > Biblical Hebrew **✓ ſtn** id., **נָשָׁרְתָּן** 'adversary' (> 'Satan'), Aramaic **✓ ſtn** v. 'be hostile', Arabic **✓ ſtn** v. 'oppose (smbd.)'; Semitic ***✓ ſtm** > Arabic **✓ ſtm** v. 'insult, revile, vilify' || | Egyptian **štm** 'heftig werden (beim Sprechen), verleumden' || **Uralic**: Finno-Ugric ***šot'a'** '(magic) force', v. 'curse' (> 'cause damage to'), v. 'bless' > ? Finnish **sota**, Estonian **sõda** 'war, battle', Finnish **soti-**, Estonian **sõdi-** v. 'wage war' | proto-Mordvin ***šūdъ** > Erzya-Mordvin **šudo-**, Moksha-Mordvin **šudъ-** v. 'curse' | Eastern Cheremis **šu'gəm** v. 'curse, invoke curses (on smbds)

head), execrate', Lowland Cheremis 'šuðbəš 'curses, execration', Highland Cheremis šuðbəš 'damnation, invocation' || proto-Ob-Ugric *šōt > proto-Vogul *šät 'luck' > Tavda Vogul šät, Northern Vogul sōt ≈ Ss sät; proto-Ostyak *sōt/*sot 'force, power' > Kazim Ostyak sot, Obdorsk Ostyak sot || **Dravidian** (ambiguous) *cōṭṭə 'insinuation, disparaging remark; defect, blame' > Tamil cōṭṭu 'defect, insinuation', Malayalam cāṭṭu 'fault', Telugu sōḍḍu 'defect, fault; blame, imputation' ¶¶ The Drav. word may alternatively belong together with Kartv. *°c|codw- v. 'sin'.

[124] ≈*tułv 'to tell (a story), pronounce magic\ritual texts' > **Ham.-Sem.:** Semitic *°✓tly, *°✓twl > Arabic tuwal- 'magic art, witchcraft' ||| Berber *tłH > Shawiya utschla v. 'speak, talk' ||| ? Cushitic: East Cush.: Somali talo 'parere, opinione; consiglio, proposta', tali- v. 'decide, advise', Somali tālo 'decision' || South Cushitic: Kwadza tulatu 'court case' ||? Agaw: Bilin, Kware tēlā, Khamir tēlā, Kemant tīlā 'medicine, drug (Arznei)' || **Indo-Eur.** *deł- > Hittite talliya- v. 'invoke (gods)', Lycian B tali 'heathen priest' ||| Germanic *talō 'narration', *taljan 'to tell, narrate' > Old Norse tala 'speech, conversation', Anglo-Saxon talu 'narration' (> English tale), Middle Low German tale 'speech', Middle Dutch tael, tale 'speech, language', Old High German zala 'Bericht'; Old Norse tala 'to speak, talk', Anglo-Saxon talian 'rechnen, meinen', tēllan 'to narrate', English tell ||| **Uralic:** Finno-Ugric *°tultv 'witchcraft' > Hungarian táltos 'sorcerer, shaman; magic horse' | Ob-Ugric *tł:lt > proto-Ostyak *tɔlt/*tolt > Northern Ostyak tol't 'giant' (← 'sorcerer'), toltn, tolten 'mit Zauberkraft', Vasyugan Ostyak tol't 'fever', Kazim Ostyak tqat 'Hilfe; Linderung (bei einer Krankheit, in der Armut)', tqata 'without effort, without noise; suddenly'; proto-Vogul *tūlt > North. Vogul tūltən, tūlnə 'leicht, einfach' (← *'by witchcraft').

In the framework of one book it is hardly possible to refer to the Nostratic perspective of *all* aspect of life and culture. If there are any desiderata as to specific questions or fields, I shall be happy to do my best to satisfy the readers' interest.

Phonetic Correspondences

Main Phonetic Correspondences of Consonants in the Nostratic Languages

Nostratic consonant chart

Stops and affricates		Fricatives		Central approximants	Nasals	Lateral sonants	Vibrants
Voiced	Voiceless	Emph.	Voiced	Voiceless			
b	p	پ			w	m	
d	t	ت				n	ل
ڙ	c	ڦ	ڙ	ڙ		ڻ = ڻ	r
ڙ	ڦ	ڦ	ڙ	ڙ			
ڙ	ڦ	ڦ	ڙ	ڙ	y	ڻ	ڻ
ڙ	ڦ	ڦ	ڙ	ڙ		ڻ	ڻ
g	k	ک				ڻ	
g	q	ڧ	ڙ	ڙ			
	?		ڙ	ڙ	ڙ		
				h (= ڻ)			
				h			

Symbols in the chart: affricates: ڙ = ڏڙ, ڦ = ڏڦ, ڙ = ڏڙ, ڦ = ڏڦ, ڙ = ڏڙy, ڦ = ڏڦy; lateral obstruents: ڙ, ڦ, ڦ, ڦ, ڦ — lateralized ڙ, ڦ, ڦ, ڙ, ڦ; palatalized consonants: ڙ, ڦ, ڦ, ڙ, ڙ, ڙ, ڙ, ڙ, ڙ, ڙ = palatalized ڙ, ڦ, ڦ, ڙ, ڙ, ڙ, ڙ, ڙ, ڙ; uvular stops: g, k, گ; uvular fricatives: ڙ = Spanish j, ڙ = Arabic ڙ; epiglottal (pharyngeal) consonant: voiceless ڻ (= ڻ = Arabic ڻ), voiced ڙ (= Arabic ڙ).

In the following table of sound correspondences the symbol ‘-’ denotes zero. The sign ‘:’ symbolizes the lengthening of the preceding vowel, ‘l:’ denotes lengthening of the consonant. The sign ‘l’ denotes glottalization of an adjacent consonant, but in Nostratic reconstruction it denotes emphatic consonants without specifying the phonetic nature of the emphasis, ‘L’ is uvularization of the consonant, ‘L’ is its tensification (transformation of a lax consonant into a tense one [fortis]), ‘L_’ is its devoicing, ‘L’ is its retroflexivization, ‘L^y’ is its palatalization. The symbol ^o denotes here labialization of the adjacent vowel, the sign [~] denotes its palatalization. Within conditioning formulas, ‘L’ means ‘before a labial vowel’, ‘E’ means ‘before a palatal vowel’. IE +*(S)- denotes the addition of the initial IE *s mobile as a reflex of N word-middle palatal elements. The symbol ‘**’ is used for working hypotheses: in cases when we have sufficient factual confirmation for a group of N phonemes only rather than for each individual N phoneme, e.g. in the case of *n and *ñ, where a distinction is possible only if the phoneme is represented in Ostyak, so that in daughter languages without *n|ñ-roots common with Ostyak we cannot find formal proof of representation of N *n and N *ñ separately, but only representation of unspecified *n|ñ. In such cases we suppose (as a working hypothesis) that both phonemes (in the case described *n and *ñ) are reflected in the same way, which is symbolized by ‘**’. The letter ‘N’ symbolizes an unspecified non-labial nasal consonant, ‘L’ is an unspecified lateral sonorant. IE *G = *g|g^w|g̚, *G^h = *g^h|g^hw|g^h. M *G = *g|*g, *K = *k|q.

The following abbreviations are used: N = Nostratic; S = Semitic; Eg = Egyptian; B = Berber; K = Kartvelian; IE = Indo-European; U = Uralic; T = Turkic; M = Mongolic; Tg = Tungusic; D = Dravidian.

N	S	Eg	B	K	IE	U	T	M	Tg	D
*b-	*b	b	*b	*b	*b ^h	*p	*b	*b	*b	*p
*-b-	*b	b	*b, *β	*b	*b ^h	*w,				
						l-/* p	*b	*b	*b	*v
*p-	*p	f	*f	*p	*p, *b	*p	*p, *b	*ψ	*p	*p
*-p-	*p	f	*f	*p	*p, *b	*p.	*p	*b,	*p	*v
						√		*β>*γ		
*p ^l -	*p	p	*f	*p, *p ^l	*p	*p	*h >*-	*ψ	*p	*p
*-p ^l -	*p	p	*f	*p, *p ^l	*p	*pp	*p	*b	*p	*pp
*d-	*d	d	*d	*d	*d ^h	*t	*j	*d,	*d	*t
								l i/* ʒ		
*-d-	*d	d	*d	*d	*d	*δ	*δ	*d	*d	*t/t̪
*t-	*t	t	*t	*t	*d	*t	*t̪	*d,	*d	*t
								l i/* c		
*-t-	*t	t	*t	*t	*d	*t	*t̪	*d	*d	*t/t̪
*t ^l -	*t ^l , *t	d	*d	*t ^l	*t	*t	*t̪	*t, *t̪		*t
							i/* c			

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N	S	Eg	B	K	IE	U	T	M	Tg	D
*-t̄-	*t̄, *t̄	d̄, t̄	*d̄, *t̄	*t̄	*t̄	*tt	*t̄	*t̄	*t̄	*tt/t̄
*ḡ-	*ḡ	ḡ, ʒ̄	*ḡ	*ḡ	*ḡ ^{h̄} , *ḡ ^{h̄} , *ḡ ^{w̄h̄}	*k̄	*k̄, *k̄ ^{c̄}	*ḡ, *ḡ ^{c̄}	*ḡ	*k̄
*-ḡ-	*ḡ	ḡ, ʒ̄	*ḡ	*ḡ	*ḡ ^{h̄} , *ḡ ^{h̄} , *ḡ ^{w̄h̄}	*ḡ	*ḡ	*ḡ	*ḡ	*-:
*k̄-	*k̄	k̄, c̄	*k̄, *ḡ?	*k̄	*ḡ, *ḡ ^{c̄} , *ḡ ^{w̄}	*k̄	*k̄	*k̄, *q̄	*k̄	*k̄
*-k̄-	*k̄	k̄, c̄		*k̄	*ḡ, *ḡ ^{c̄} , *ḡ ^{w̄}	*k̄	*ḡ, *k̄	*ḡ, *ḡ	*ḡ	*k̄
*k̄ ^{l̄} -	*k̄ ^{l̄} , *k̄	k̄, k̄	*ȳ	*k̄ ^{l̄}	*k̄, *k̄ ^{l̄} , *k̄ ^{w̄}	*k̄	*k̄, *k̄ ^{l̄}	*k̄, *q̄	*x̄	*k̄
*-k̄ ^{l̄} -	*k̄ ^{l̄}	k̄	*ȳ, *k̄	*k̄ ^{l̄}	*k̄, *k̄ ^{l̄} , *k̄ ^{w̄}	*kk	*k̄	*k̄, *q̄	*k̄	*kk
*-ḡ-	*ȳ	q̄?		*ȳ	*x̄, *x̄ ^{w̄} , [*x̄?]	*-	*-	*-	*-	*-
*-ḡ-	*ȳ	H		*ȳ	*X̄, ?*H̄	*-, ?*ȳ	*-	*-	*-, ?*ḡ	*-
*-q̄-	*x̄	x̄	*H̄	*q̄	*k̄, *x̄ ^{w̄} , [*x̄?]	*k̄, *x̄ ^{w̄} , [*x̄?]	*-	*-	*-	*-
*-q̄-	*x̄	x̄	?*H̄	*q̄	*H̄	*-	*-	*-, *ḡ, ?*ḡ	*-	*-
*-q̄-	*k̄ ^{l̄} , *x̄	k̄, x̄	*ȳ	*q̄	*k̄, *k̄ ^{l̄} , *k̄ ^{w̄}	*k̄	*k̄, *k̄ ^{l̄}	*k̄, *q̄	*x̄	*k̄
*-q̄-	*k̄ ^{l̄}	k̄	?*ȳ	*q̄	*k̄, *k̄ ^{l̄} , *k̄ ^{w̄}	*k̄,	*k̄	*k̄, *q̄	*k̄	*kk
*-z̄-	*z̄	z̄?		*z̄-*z̄ ₁	*s̄	*s̄	*j̄	*z̄?	*j̄	*d̄
*-z̄-	*z̄	z̄?		*z̄-*z̄ ₁	*s̄	?*é̄		*z̄?	*j̄?	*é̄?
*-c̄-	*s̄			*c̄=*c̄ ₁	?*(s)K̄	*é̄	*c̄	*c̄?	*c̄	*c̄
*-c̄-	*s̄	?c̄	?*s̄	*c̄=*c̄ ₁	?*(s)K̄	*é̄	*c̄?	*c̄?	*c̄	*c̄
*-c̄-	*c̄ ^{l̄}			*c̄ ^{l̄} =*c̄ ₁	?*(s)K̄	*é̄	*c̄	*c̄	*c̄	*c̄
*-c̄-	*c̄ ^{l̄} , *s̄	?z̄		*c̄ ^{l̄} =*c̄ ₁	*s̄	?*é̄	*c̄			*c̄
*-s̄-	*s̄	s̄		*s̄=*s̄ ₁	*s̄	*s̄	*s̄	*s̄	*s̄	*c̄
*-s̄-	*s̄	s̄	?*s̄	*s̄=*s̄ ₁	*s̄	*s̄	*s̄	*s̄	*s̄	*c̄
*-z̄-	*z̄			*z̄=*z̄ ₁	*H̄	*s̄	*j̄	?*s̄	*s̄	*c̄
*-z̄-		z̄?	?*z̄	*z̄=*z̄ ₁	?*H̄	*s̄		?*s̄, *ȳ		
*-z̄-	*z̄	z̄?		*z̄	*s̄	*é̄	*j̄	*z̄?	*j̄?	*c̄
*-z̄-	*z̄			*z̄, *z̄	*s̄	*é̄		*z̄		*c̄
*-é̄-	*s̄			*s̄	*c̄	?sk̄	*c̄		*c̄	*c̄
*-é̄-	*s̄				*c̄	*é̄	*c̄?	*c̄?	*c̄	*c̄
*-c̄ ^{l̄} -	*c̄ ^{l̄}			*c̄ ^{l̄}	?sk̄	*é̄	*c̄		*c̄	*c̄
*-c̄ ^{l̄} -	*c̄ ^{l̄} , *s̄	?z̄	?*s̄	*c̄ ^{l̄}	?*s̄	?é̄(é̄)	*c̄	*c̄?		?*c̄(c̄)
*-s̄-	*s̄	s̄		*s̄	*s̄	*é̄	*s̄	*s̄	*s̄	*c̄
*-s̄-	*s̄	s̄		*s̄	*s̄	*é̄	*s̄	*s̄	*s̄	*c̄
*-z̄-	*z̄			*z̄	*H̄	*é̄	*j̄	?*s̄	*s̄	*c̄
*-z̄-	*z̄		?z̄?	*z̄	*H̄	*é̄		*z̄?		*c̄

N	S	E g	B	K	IE	U	T	M	T g	D
*š-	*δ	z?		*š	*s	*č,?*y	*j	*z	*j	*d,?*t
*ž-	*δ	z, d		*ž	*s,?*d,	*č	*δ	*z,?*d	*j?	
*č-	*θ			*č	*s,?*d?	*č	*č	*č	*č	*d
?*č-	?*d	?*j			*s,?*d?	*č	*č	*č	*č	
*-č-	*θ	?č	*s	*č	*s	*č	*č	*č	*č?	*č
*č-	*θ			*č	*s,?*d?	*č	*č	*č	*č	*d
*-č-	*θ	z		*č	*t ^h ,?*d?	*č	*č	*č	*č	*d
*š-	*š	s	?*s	*š	*s	*š	*s	*s	*s	*č
*-š-	*š	s	*s	*š	*s	*š	*s	*s	*s	*č
*ž-	*š	? z		*z	*H	*š				*s?
*-ž-	*š,?*z	?? z	*z	*ž,?*z	*H	*š				*j?
*ž-	*š	? s		*ž	*l	*λ	? *j	*z	*j?	*č
č*ž-				*s	*z	*z	*l			*t,?*t̄
*č-	*š	š	?*s	*č	*s	*č	*č	*č	*č	*č
*-č-	*š	š		?*č	*s	*č	*č	*č	*č	*č
*č-	*š	? 3	?*z	*č		*š	*č	*č	*č	*č
*-č-	*š	z		*č	*s	*č	*č	*č	*č	*d
*š-	*š	š		*s,?*s ₁	*s,?*ks	*š	*s	*s	*s,	*š
*-š-	*š	š		*s,?*s ₁	*s	*š	*s	*s	*s,	*č
*ž-	*š	š		?*l	*l	*l,?*š	*j	*s	*s	*n
*-ž-	*š	?? n	?*s	*l	*l	*ž	*l	*l	*l	*l
*v-	*ř	ř		*v	*x	-	-	-	-	-
*-v-	*ř	?ř	*H	?*v,	?*x,	-	-	-	-	-
				L/*x	-	?*v				*
*χ-	*h	h	*H	*χ	*x	-	-	-	-	-
*-χ-	*h	h	?*H-	*χ	*x	-	-	-	-	-
*ř-	*ř	ř	?*H-	-	*H	-	-	-	-	-
*-ř-	*ř	ř	?*H-	-	*H	-	-	-	-	-
*h-	*h	h,x	*H	-	*H	?*-	-	-	-	-
*-h-	*h	h	?*H-	-	*H	-	-	-	-	-
*h-	*h	?h		-	*x	-	-	-	-	-
*-h-	*h	h,-	?*-	-	*x	-	-	-	-	-
*?-	*?	i, 3	?*-?H	-	? = ?-	-	-	-	-	-
*-?-	*?	3,y,-	?-,?*	-	? -,?*	? = ?-	-	-	-	-
*m-	*m		*m	*m	*m	*m	*b m	*m,	*m	
								_#/? b	_#/? b	
*-m-	*m	m	*m	*m	*m	*m	*m	*m	*m	*m
*n-	*n	n	?*n	?*n	*n	*n	?*j	*n	?*n	*n
*-n-	*n	n	?*n	*n	*n	*n	?*n	*n	*n	*n
*ñ-	*n	n	?*n	?*n	*n	*ñ	*j	*n	?*n	*n
						??*kn				

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N	S	Eg	B	K	IE	U	T	M	T g	D
*-n-	*n	n	*n	**n	*n	*n	*n	*n	**n	*-n-, t/n
*ñ-	*n	n		*n	*j	*ñ	*j (< *ñ)	*n	*ñ	*n
*-ñ-	*n			*n	*ñ, *ñ	*ñ	*ñ>*y	?*n	*ñ	*ñ
?*ŋ-	*n?				*n, ?-	*n, ?-	*-, *j	*-, *n	*ŋ	?*n
*-ŋ-	*n, *m	n	*n	*n	*n,	*ŋ	*ŋ	*ŋ,	*ŋ	*ŋk
					*ng ^h ,			*ng,		
					*nḡ ^h ,			*ng		
					*ng ^w ^h			*ŋK		
*l-	*l	? i	*l		*l	*l	*j	*n	?*l	??*t
*-l-	*l	r, ?, 3	*l	*l	*l	*l	*l	*l	*l	*l
*-l-	*l	?n	*l	*l	*l	*l	*j	*n	*l	*n
*-l-	*l		*l	*l	*l	*l	*l	*l	*l	*l
*-l-	*l		?*l	*l	*l	*l	?*j	?*l,	?*l	*ñ,
								?*n		??n
*-ř-	*l	r, 3	*l	*l	*l	*l	*l	*l	*l	*l
*r-	*r	r	?*r	*r	*r	*r	*j	?*n	*l,	*n
									*n	
*-r-	*r	r, 3	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*r	*ꝫ;
										*ꝫ
										(< *r ⊥)
*-ř-	*r	r, 3	*r	*r	*r	*r	*ř;	*r	*r	*ř
							- ⊥/*r			
*w-	*w	w	*w	*w	*w	*w	*b, *o	*b	*b,	*v,
										? *
										_U/*-
*-w-	*w	w, 3	?*w	*w, *-	*w	*w	*b, *-	*β, *b	*b	*v
/V_V										
*-w-	*w, *-	??-, y	?*w	*w, *-	*w, *-	*w, *-		*b, *-	*b, *-	*-
/⊥_V										
*-w- ⊥	*w, *-				*w	*w	*w, *o	?*	?-, *o	?-, *-
/a_E										
?*v										
*-w-	*		?*:	*-, *w	*:, *-	*-	*	*-		*
/u_⊥										
*y-	*y	i	?*y, *i	*-, ?*y	*j, *ej	*y	*j	*y	?*y	*.
*-y-	*y	y, -	*y	*-	*j/*i	*y	*y	*y	*y,	*y, *-
/V_V										
*-y-	*y, *-	?-	*-	*-	*-, *j,	*y, *⊥y	*⊥y,	*-, *y	*-,	*-, *⊥
/⊥_V										
*-y-	*y, *-	y, -	?*y	*-	*j, *-	*y, *⊥y	*-, *⊥y	*-, *y	*-,	*-, *y
/V_⊥										

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Note: For considerations of space I have been obliged to skip all bibliographical references and indications of my predecessors and colleagues who were the first to propose some important inter-family comparisons (V. Illich-Svitych, B. Collinder, K.H. Menges, V. Blažek, M. Räsänen, V. Shevoroshkin, V. Terentyev, S. Starostin, E. Helimski, H. Fähnrich, S.A. Tyler, Th. Burrow, A. Gluhak, A. Bomhard, G. Klímov, G. Takács, B. Čop, I. Hegedűs, K. Bouda, and others). The necessary references and acknowledgements will appear in my *Nostratic Dictionary* (in preparation).

Index of Nostratic Words

Index of Nostratic words (mentioned in the book):

- [1] *?*ibrE* ‘fig tree’
- [2] *?*č'í'bñvñ* (or *?*č'í'bñfñ*) ‘hyena’
- [3] *?*č'í'fñwñ* ‘large feline’
- [4] **SiwñgE* ‘leopard’
- [5] *?*č'í'u'* ‘antelope (male), deer’
- [6] **maŋ'g'ñ* or **maN_Li_L'g'ñ* ‘monkey’
- [7] **šūŋU* ‘snow’
- [8] **čaíU_Lgñ* ‘snow’ or ‘hoar-frost’
- [9] ?? **č'í'a'Rññ* ‘hoar-frost’, (>) ‘frozen soil’
- [10] **k'iruqa* ‘ice, hoarfrost; to freeze’
- [11] **Sah_Li_Lbñ* ‘saline earth, desert’
- [12] **tälwA* or **talwä* ‘cold season, rain’
- [13] **yamñ* ‘water body’
- [14] **moRE* ‘water body’
- [15] **qaRp|p'ñ* ‘to harvest’ (→ ‘cereals’)
- [16] **zükñ* or **zukE* ‘edible cereals, harvest (of wild plants?)’
- [17] **gaLñ* ‘cereals’
- [18] **xänt'ñ* ‘kernel, grain’
- [19] **mälge* ‘breast, female breast’
- [20] **ħalbñ* (or **χalbñ*) ‘white’
- [21] **mayʒñ* ‘tasty beverage’
- [22] **k'adñ* ‘to wicker, wattle’ (> ‘wall, fence’)
- [23] **k'orč|cñ* ‘basket’
- [24] **p'|pat'a'* ‘basket, box’
- [25] **q|yäřK'íu'* ‘sinew’
- [26] **yaouñ* ‘sinew, tendon’
- [27] **lɔŋK'a* ‘to bend’
- [28] **ńoy|řiE* (or **ńay|řiE*) ‘sinew’, ‘to tie together’
- [29] **p|p'ešqE* ~ **p|p'eqšE* ‘spear’
- [30] **t'uł,i,g'ñ* ‘to spread like a veil/net, cover with a veil/net, catch with a net’
- [31] **goki* ‘track’ (→ ‘way’), ‘to follow the track’
- [32] **r'd'EřSñ* or **r'd'EřxSñ* ‘to follow the tracks’
- [33] **šubyñ* ‘spike, spear, to pierce’
- [34] **t'ap'ñ* ‘to hit (the target)’

- [35] *ment¹Δ ‘to miss one’s aim’ (→ ‘to pass by’)
- [36] *gurHa ‘antelope, male antelope’
- [37] *?Eʃʃi ‘deer’
- [38] *boča ‘(young) deer’
- [39] *buK'a ‘bovines’
- [40] *čoma ‘aurochs, wild bovine’
- [41] ? *č'a₁w₁Δ₁RΔ (or *čuRΔ) ‘bull, calf’
- [42] *y|gawV ‘wild sheep\goats’, (→ or ←) ‘wild game’
- [43] *diga ‘goat’
- [44] *k'ä¹c²Δ ‘wild goat’ (or ‘a kind of antelope’)
- [45] *bukEyʃʃiΔ ‘billy goat, ram’
- [46] *čΔp¹ΔrΔ ‘wild boar’
- [47] *čiřt¹i² ‘(male, young) artiodactyl’
- [48] *p'oK'ü ‘pack, wild cattle’
- [49] *gadi (or *gati?) ‘kid, young goat’, ? ‘(a species of) antelope’
- [50] *bUyžΔ ‘fur-bearing animal’
- [51] *?hUrΔ(-ba) ‘squirrel or a similar animal’
- [52] *k'un|n̩Δ(rΔ) ‘small carnivore (marten, polecat, wild cat, or sim.)’
- [53] *dik'Δ ‘edible cercals or fruit’
- [54] *čžugbΔ ‘fig tree (species?)’
- [55] ?? *b'iřřuw'ga ‘(a kind of) edible fruit’
- [56] *K'uSΔ ‘nut’
- [57] *LΔžΔ (or *LΔwžΔ) ‘(a kind of) nut’, ‘nut-tree\shrub’
- [58] *but'Δ ‘pistachio tree\nut’
- [59] *mar₁y₂Δ ‘(mul-, black-) berries’
- [60] *m'o₁y₂žΔ ‘(a kind of) berry’
- [61] ? *K'ERΔ ‘fruit of a leguminous plant’ or sim.
- [62] *m'uřrk'Δ(-ŋK'Δ) ‘root, root-crops, edible roots’
- [63] *mořlΔ ‘to pound, crumble, gnaw/smash to pieces’
- [64] *řäPHi ‘to bake, prepare food on hot stones’
- [65] *qUbžΔ (< *qUpžΔ?) ‘food made of ground cereals’, ‘flour’ (> ‘bread’)
- [66] *ř'omša ‘meat’
- [67] *ř'ūžΔ ‘intestines, pluck (as food)’
- [68] *řayňo ‘marrow, brain, soft fat of animals’
- [69] *mag₁i₂za ‘liver’
- [70] *ń'a¹K'U ‘soft parts of the animal’s body (liver, marrow, suet)’
- [71] *muňa(-t|dΔ) ‘egg’

- [72] ? *^ra|o⁷w^h|χ i or *^{?u}h|χ i ‘egg’ (or ‘white of egg’)
- [73] *K⁷o1⁷ ‘(large) fish’
- [74] *doTgiH⁷U ‘fish’
- [75] *mEn|n i ‘(a kind of) fish’
- [76] *p|p⁷ay⁷ ‘(a kind of) fish’
- [77] *^tüR⁷ ‘hard-roe’
- [78] *^rk⁷ür_LW_J⁷ or *^rk⁷ur_LW_JE ‘hard roe, spawn’
- [79] *madu ‘honey’
- [80] *č⁷ü⁷r⁷ ‘flint-stone, knife’
- [81] ? *buR⁷ ‘flint’ (> ‘to cut\carve with a flint’)
- [82] *ti|e_L?a_Jí⁷o (or *tü_L?a_Jí⁷) ‘stone, heap of stones’
- [83] *kiw_LW_JhE ‘stone’
- [84] *boruſiγ⁷ ‘trunk’ (→ ‘log’)
- [85] ? *c⁷U_L ‘stalk, stick’
- [86] *k⁷ož⁷ ‘tree trunk’
- [87] *kañ⁷(-b⁷) ‘stalk, trunk’ (→ ‘log’)
- [88] *žuR⁷ ‘pole, long piece of wood’
- [89] *žiryuž ‘vein, sinew’
- [90] *režekU ‘thorn, hook’ (< ‘tooth’)
- [91] *k⁷r⁷k_LW_J ‘tooth, claw’, ‘hook’
- [92] *tor⁷ ‘bark; to bark (remove the bark), to peel’
- [93] *K⁷a⁷p⁷ʃ⁷E⁷ ‘bark’
- [94] *K⁷ayer⁷ ‘bark, film’
- [95] *t⁷o_LW_Jga or *t⁷oga_L-W_J ‘hide, skin’
- [96] *t⁷a_LU_Jya ‘skin, pelt’
- [97] *K⁷ař⁷ ‘skin, film, bark’
- [98] *k⁷oRup⁷ ‘(kind of) bark’, ‘skin’
- [99] *K⁷ož⁷ ‘to skin, to bark’
- [100] *K⁷DN⁷R⁷N⁷H⁷p⁷ ‘piece of leather (used esp. as footwear)’
- [101] *p⁷ix|y⁷A ‘sharp bone, sharp tool’
- [102] *piš⁷ ‘bile’
- [103] *^täx⁷l⁷a ~ *^tä⁷l⁷x⁷a or *^tax⁷l⁷E ~ *^ta⁷l⁷x⁷E ‘spleen’
- [104] *l⁷ä⁷p⁷A ‘spleen’
- [105] *t⁷EqmE ‘sinciput, crown of the head, top, tip’
- [106] *g⁷edi ‘occiput; hind part’
- [106] ? *go|atK⁷E ‘popliteal space (back of the knee), armpit’
- [108] *ňiK⁷a ‘jugular vertebra, neck, nape of the neck’

- [109] *kälu|ū ‘a woman from the other exogamous moiety’
- [110] *küda ‘a man from the other moiety’
- [111] *səzA ‘a relative from the other moiety’
- [112] *t̪x̪n̪w̪äñ|n̪n̪ ‘relative [of a younger\the same generation] from the other moiety’
- [113] *n̪ñu|üśn̪ or *n̪ñu|üsy n̪ ‘woman’ (general term), ‘woman from the other moiety’
- [114] *Hić|cχ n̪ or *-c²|c¹- , *-v|g|h- ‘father, head of a family’
- [115] *pediN n̪ ‘pater familias’
- [116] *pemA ‘mother’
- [117] *r̪ä'y n̪ (or *h̪ä'y n̪?) ‘mother’
- [118] ?? *?aba ~ *?ap'a ‘daddy, father’
- [119] *fogj|lV ‘child, one’s child, to beget, to bear a child’
- [120] *parn̪ ‘member of the clan’
- [121] *parba ‘to make magic, cast spells’
- [122] *r̪ä'l n̪ ‘to burn (esp. sacrifices), use magic means (sacrifices, magic formulae etc.) to produce a particular result’
- [123] ?? *r̪yal|l n̪ ‘device (esp. a dishonourable one) of doing something’
- [124] *sot' n̪ ‘to exercise magic force’ (> ‘to curse, bless’)
- [125] ≈*tu1 n̪ ‘to tell (a story), pronounce magic\ritual texts’

The Nostratic Macrofamily and Linguistic Palaeontology

Nostratic is a hypothetical macrofamily of languages which includes Indo-European, Hamito-Semitic (Semitic, Egyptian, Berber, Cushitic, Omotic, Chadic), Kartvelian (Georgian and related languages), Uralic ((Finn-Ugric, Samoyedic, Yukagir), Altaic (Turkic, Mongolic, Tungusic, Korean, Japanese), and Dravidian (in India). The hypothesis is based on more than 2000 common roots and affixes, in which regular sound correspondences are observed. In the present book the ancient Nostratic roots are used in order to achieve information about the speakers of Proto-Nostratic, their habitat, their culture and economy, their kinship system, and their environment. An attempt is made to determine whether their culture belonged to the Neolithic period or to an earlier epoch.

Aharon Dolgopolsky was born in Moscow in 1930. He was a member of the Institute of Linguistics (USSR Academy of Sciences). His field of research is comparative linguistics. In the early 1960s he (like V. Illich-Svitych, but independently) began to study lexical and grammatical similarities among Indo-European, Hamito-Semitic, Kartvelian, Uralic and Altaic and draw the conclusion that these language families derive from a common source. Illich-Svitych and Dolgopolsky were the first to undertake a multilateral comparison of daughter-languages of Nostratic. For 8 years Dolgopolsky taught Nostratic linguistics at Moscow University and trained a generation of comparativists (S. Starostin, E. Helimski, O. Stolbova, and others). In 1976 he moved to Israel and since then has worked at Haifa University.

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